PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE APPLICABLE TO CLERICAL EDUCATION

BY

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A thesis submitted to the
Faculty of the University of North Carolina
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science in the Department of Business Education

Greensboro

1943

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Cooperative work experience, as a formal educational procedure, is a relatively recent innovation. In limited areas, work experience has had a long career. Its basis is the centuries old apprenticeship system, and its beginning was in schools teaching vocational education.

> Vocationally speaking, work experience has been the principle of having the budding artisan practice his skills and techniques in actual work situations in order to acquire the ability and the knowledge of the journeyman.[1]

Since the turn of the century the idea of cooperative work experience has had a far wider application than the aforementioned apprentice system ever fostered. Its importance to education is so far reaching that it is often considered one of the basic principles of education.

> In many quarters it (cooperative work experience) is being taken as something which should become part and parcel of basic education, a content which should be given to everyone desiring an education or expecting to receive one.[2]

The stimulations which vocational education has received through financial subsidy from the federal government has been a major factor in the development of this idea, because work experience in many cases is an important requisite for state reimbursement. The National Vocational Education Act (Smith-Hughes) in 1917 set the stage for the philosophy of cooperative education to come into its own. The more recent George-Deen Act (1936) has further emphasized the policy of the federal government in the soundness and need for such programs.

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[1] S. P. Hoskyn "The Idea of Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 13.

[2] Ibid.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine the fundamental principles which underlie cooperative work experience programs in secondary schools and which may be applicable to clerical or office training. For the past forty years cooperative work programs have developed and multiplied in all the phases of vocational training. In this respect, however, probably the least developed field of vocational education is that of clerical or office training. It is necessary, therefore, to discover the principles applicable to cooperative work experience in this field from a study of practices and principles of similar programs in other fields. From this analysis of cooperative programs in other areas of vocational education the principles involved are applied to clerical training programs of business education.

The following questions will be answered in this study:

1. How have principles of cooperative training developed and changed throughout the years?

2. What are the federal government's policies concerning cooperative work experience in vocational education?

3. What principles of agricultural, home economics, and trade and industrial are usable in business education?

4. What are the principles of the distributive phases of business education?

5. What principles of cooperative work experience have been used in clerical education practice?

6. To what extent are the principles of cooperative work experience in the non-clerical fields applicable to clerical programs?

JUSTIFICATION AND NEED FOR THE STUDY

As far as can be determined no study similar to this has been made. Nor has it been possible to find any studies specifically related to the

purpose and problems herein described.

Until the Smith-Hughes Act was passed and its policies put into operation, cooperative education was more or less an experiment in this country. At that time, the concept of vocational education in American public secondary schools had not even been accepted universally. Inglis says that it was "experimental."[3]

The purpose of the Smith-Hughes Act is to encourage public schools to cooperate with their local farm, home, business and industrial organizations by introducing certain kinds of courses in which actual work is integrated with related classroom instruction. Congress was persuaded to embark on this program because of convincing reasons demonstrating the national interests to be benefitted by such help.[4] The soundness of this need has never been seriously challenged.

The federal government has accepted the view, with regard to vocational education, that there is little or no correlation between the need for education in a given state and the ability of that state to finance its systems of instruction. Many factors, such as the improvement of communication and transportation and the development of technology and interstate commerce have tended to break down the tradition that education is a state responsibility alone. There should be and is available to all who need it, therefore, a minimum program supported by those best able to pay.

A fundamental factor which has been largely slighted in the past is that "young people need to learn to work."[5] To aid the transition from

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[3]Alexander Inglis Principles of Secondary Education, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1918), p. 574.

[4]John Dale Russell and Associates Vocational Education, Staff Study No. 8, Advisory Committee on Education, Office of Education, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 223.

[5]American Youth Commission What the High Schools Ought to Teach, Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 13.

dependent childhood into independent, self-supporting adulthood, the school can

> put its pupils in contact with opportunities that give practical work training and prepare more directly than does ordinary school work for later employment,[6]

by the method of cooperative education.

> There can be no overlooking the fact that immediate economic inducements furnish a strong incentive for pupils to cultivate habits of industry and concentration that are highly advantageous.[7]

Cooperative education implies that the school accept work as a legitimate part of its educational program. School credit toward graduation is usually given for the successful execution of such work.

A study of the major principles which guide cooperative education should help to clarify the thinking of those administrators, teachers, students, parents and public who are interested in this phase of education.

A recent yearbook states:

> One of the best ways through which to keep in touch with the employer during the period of vocational training is to establish a cooperative training program.[8]

The Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration during the past decade recognized this need. Consequently, they have stressed the fact that work experience is not only essential to sound vocational education, but is also a most important educational device which should be used in general as well as in vocational training.

In spite of vigorous opposition from many sources, cooperative work experience programs have increased steadily, both in number and in

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[6] Ibid., p. 18.

[7] Ibid.

[8] National Business Teachers Association The Principles of Business Education, (Bowling Green, Kentucky: The Association, 1942), pp. 180-1.

effectiveness. Pressures at the present time to develop these programs in the clerical field is increasing.

As far as is discoverable, the principles of the numerous and varied plans of cooperative work training utilized in clerical education have never before been written down in one, two, three order. The hope is expressed that such a study might be of some use to those who are concerned with such programs.

MATERIALS AND PROCEDURE

This study is designated by Whitney as a descriptive research.[9] The materials are selected from the literature relating to cooperative work experience. Typical quotations and references of leaders and writers are liberally used. It has become necessary, because of the paucity of such statements to include descriptions of current practices in the field. In analyzing the literature, selections and references are made on the basis of the following criteria:

1. Elimination of materials not directly related to work-study programs and vocational practices.

2. Statements of policy issued by the federal government.

3. Opinions, recommendations and expressions of competent authorities.

4. Typical practices.

In order to provide an understanding of the forces which have influenced the development of work experience programs, a certain amount of historical material has been included.

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[9] Frederick Lawson Whitney The Elements of Research, (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1937), p. 301.

To serve as a check on all important references on the subject, letters of inquiry concerning the problem were sent to a few of the acknowledged leaders in vocational education. Newspapers, magazines and yearbooks, particularly in the field of business education, were consulted; but publications outside the field of business education have by no means been overlooked. Books in the varied areas of economic history, industrial education, agricultural education, home economics education, vocational education, distributive education, business education and secondary education were also referred to in an attempt to survey the development and growth of practices in cooperative training.

Printed materials from the University of Cincinnati, a pioneer in work-study programs, were obtained and a selected bibliography from Rochester Athaenum and Mechanical College were consulted. U. S. Government bulletins, pamphlets and proceedings were used to ascertain policies and obtain information about the federal government's attitude toward the school's entering the fields of business and industry.

The practices of cooperative work training in a number of communities with respect to related practices were read and analyzed in order to discover the principles underlying the field of vocational education; the way in which they conform to each other and to accepted procedures in education.

DEFINITIONS

Cooperative work experience, considered an essential principle of vocational education, implies the inclusion in the school program of work on an actual job alternating with definite traditional instruction periods, as far as this study is concerned.

Upon request for an Office of Education definition of cooperative work experience, J. C. Wright, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education in the U. S. Office of Education, referred to the Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, which does not contain any definition as such, but shows how the programs are implemented by the federal authority.[10]

B. Frank Kyker, Chief of the Business Education Service in the U. S. Office of Education, states:

> . . .cooperation between the school and businessmen has been the rapid development of a training program organized on a cooperative part-time basis in which the student spends approximately half of his time on an actual office or store job (or farm, or home, or shop) and half of the time in school where he receives instruction definitely related to his job activities. In such a program, work and education are combined to supplement and complement each other.[11]

Prosser and Allen, in their book, Vocational Education in a Democracy, consider the inclusion of the following points as necessary in a cooperative work experience plan:

1. Usually the student is placed on the job by the school.
2. He is regarded as a student at work rather than as a worker at school.
3. While he has made an entry into the occupation, he is still a student of the school for the purpose of learning.
4. The whole scheme is an effort to secure a controlled experience in the occupation for students of the school.[12]

Rather than defining it, J. Paul Leonard sets forth the following criteria of a work experience program:

1. A good work experience program requires a combination of physical work and study on a specific problem or endeavor.
2. The work experience program should provide opportunity for both social and vocational experiences.
3. A corollary of the second is that the program of work experience should be varied.

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[10]Letter from J. C. Wright, Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education, U. S. Office of Education, February 13, 1943.

[11]B. Frank Kyker "Cooperation Between Business Educators and Organized Business Groups," Business Education Digest, XI, (March, 1942), p. 12.

[12]Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen Vocational Education in a Democracy, (New York: Century, 1925), pp. 225-6.

4. The work should be achieved under the normal conditions of the job.
5. Ample time and recognition must be given to the work experience:
   a. Flexible time schedule.
   b. School credit.
   c. Financial reward.
6. The work should be progressive and adjusted to the maturity and goals of youth.
7. A work experience program should be supplemented by an adequate program of guidance, placement and follow-up.
8. The work needs to be supervised by those who can recognize the characteristics of success on the job.[13]

The President's Advisory Committee on Education states that the cooperative plan is an arrangement whereby

> the pupil goes to school for about half his time and engages in some productive employment assigned through the school the remainder of his time. Plans have been worked out, for example, under which pupils are paired, so that while one member of the pair goes to school, the other works at the job. At the end of a fixed period the members of the pair change places; thus the educational program and the job are carried on without interruption. Both the school work and the employment can be related effectively to the type of occupation in which the young person expects eventually to engage.[14]

William E. Haines, writing about cooperative secretarial work, defines cooperative training as

> that education and training of workers for service in the secretarial field which must of necessity be directed toward the requirements of the employer. Cooperative part-time classes provide a practical vehicle by which the school and the employer can share the joint responsibility for the training of competent employees.[15]

For purposes of this study, the terms cooperative work experience, directed occupational experience, cooperative education, and cooperative training are used interchangeably and synonomously.

Vocational Education, in this study, is synonomous with vocational training and means that education which specifically prepares for occupational efficiency.

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[13] J. Paul Leonard "The Nature of Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), pp. 8-11.

[14] Russell, op. cit., p. 183.

[15] William E. Haines Secretarial Part-Time Classes, (New York: Gregg, 1942), p. iii.

One government source states that vocational education is

> a very inclusive term, and, viewed broadly, may cover all those experiences whereby an individual learns to carry on successfully any useful occupation. These experiences may be organized and institutionalized, or unorganized and more or less haphazard. In a narrower sense, vocational education may be defined as a series of controlled and organized experiences arranged to prepare a person for socially useful employment
>
> Since all education has as its purpose the attainment of efficient living, vocational education must be set aside in a not too clearly segregated field as such a classification differs with the individual purpose of each learner.[16]

The definition of vocational education given in the Vocational Education Acts is somewhat more limited in scope, as it is interpreted as stating:

> To the extent that it is subsidized by the federal government under the Vocational Education Acts, vocational education has reference to training for useful employment. It may be given to boys and girls who, having selected a vocation, desire preparation for entering it as trained workers; to youths who, having already entered employment, seek greater efficiency in that employment; and to adults established in their trade or occupation, who wish through increase in their efficiency and wage-earning capacity to advance to positions of responsibility.[17]

Clerical Education pertains, in this study, to all preparation for all office positions, including secretarial, general clerical, accounting and bookkeeping, operation of office machines, etc.

LIMITATIONS

This study is limited to cooperative work only on the secondary school level. It seeks to make neither a criticism nor an evaluation of existing practices as to methods of organization, means of supervision, periods of alternation, hours of employment or any other similar matters. No special cognizance is taken of the present war-time crisis.

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[16] Russell, op. cit., p. 13.

[17] U. S. Office of Education Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), p. 6.

CHAPTER II

DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE

In order to understand the movement which has resulted in federal appropriations to vocational education, a knowledge of the history of many and varied economic, social and educational forces which have blended together to produce what is popularly called cooperative education, is pertinent to this study.

THE FORERUNNER -- APPRENTICESHIP

From the relatively early periods of recorded history,[1] civilized countries followed a system called apprenticeship, which provided training for the practical crafts and trades, and which reached its height of influence in the Middle Ages. Since formal education was largely to prepare the "chosen" for service in the Church, and therefore, practically unheard of for the masses, training for the average young boy was with the master craftsman who took novices into his shop to teach them the skills of a particular trade. After serving as a general duty helper for a period of years, usually five to seven, the boy was promoted to a journeyman, for which he received a meager wage in return for services rendered under the master's guidance. The young man eventually became a master himself and likewise educated other youths in the mysteries of his art. This apprenticeship system was the only method of recruiting youth into specific lines of endeavor for hundreds of years.

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[1] Herbert A. Tonne Business Education: Principles and Trends, (New York: Gregg, 1939), p. 1.

Ascending into power in the thirteenth century was the system of business known as mercantile capitalism, whereby the merchant remained at home instead of wandering about to sell his wares, and his counting house became the throne of this new class (bourgeois). Industrial capitalism followed with its development of highly specialized businesses which leased the various functions of the sedentary merchant. When the chiefly agricultural population started pouring into the cities to obtain "factory" work, the heretofore important apprentice system began to crumble.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the tremendous industrial expansion of the United States produced a condition

> which on the one hand resulted in an enormous production of a great variety of goods and on the other hand brought phenomenal changes in the life of the people.[2]

Production on a large scale created a concentration of machinery, so that it became economically desirable to replace hand labor with machines. In other words, the factory plan became the prevailing form of industrial organization. "An inevitable result of this evolution was a disintegration of many trades."[3] Although not all vocational work had risen to a high degree of specialization, this evolution had gone far enough to materially affect training and education in general.

Despite the many disadvantages of apprenticeship, it had proved moderately satisfactory for many centuries. With the decline of this form of training, there came a demand for instruction in keeping with the new conditions of production and distribution.

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[2]Lloyd L. Beauch Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 1.

[3]Ibid.

DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TO 1917

Due to the fact that the idea of commercial and continuation schools was imported from Germany, practice preceded theory in this country. It was only after some years of experience with such training that the American theory began to emerge.

The secondary schools set up in the early American colonies were of the classical type, i.e., Latin Grammar schools, literally named because the classical languages were the chief items in the curricula. One of the first records in American history of a voice uttering a cry for "useful" subjects is found in the writing of Benjamin Franklin, a severe critic of education of his day. In 1749 he wrote Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennslyvania, which in essence said:

> The history of commerce of the invention of the arts, rise of manufactures, progress of trade, . . .with the reasons, causes, etc, may also be made entertaining to youth, and will be useful to all. And this, with the accounts in the history of the prodigious force and effect of engines and machines used in war, to be informed of the principles of that art by which weak men perform such wonders, labor is saved, manufacturing expedited, etc.[4]

It was a century before Franklin's ideas were formulated into a workable plan. The Academies, which post-dated the Latin schools as the prevailing form of secondary education, began to teach such "vocational" subjects as surveying, accounting, art, literature, etc., and thus represented a departure from the traditional classical pattern.

Although the first was established in Boston in 1821, a new kind of secondary school, the free public high school, became dominant in the educational scene around 1870 because of the general movements of civilization then taking place.

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[4]American Youth Commission What the High Schools Ought to Teach, Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 3.

> Historians describe this period of American development as the second industrial revolution. The first industrial revolution which began in England about 1750 had occurred at a time when the occupation of the great majority of the people in this country was agriculture. At that time, since there was little machine industry here, the first industrial revolution affected this country only indirectly.[5]

The advent of the expanding natural resources, the rise of large scale manufacturing, and the consequent growth of cities decidedly altered the occupations and educational outlook of the American people.

A demand for more education resulted in the free public high school movement which has since become practically universal in this country. These new schools, principally due to the marked change in school population, have had to modify their instruction to fit the needs of pupils from every level and strata of society.

> In the past, the secondary school, with a highly selected population, was called upon to perform the single and simple function of preparing for college; today, enrolling a large and increasing percentage of children of high school age, it must meet the needs of diverse groups and equip boys and girls for successful and effective participation in the manifold activities of modern society.[6]

Other causes of this demand for practical curricula also loom large. Research in virtually all paths of knowledge has led to the placing of greater emphasis on the social sciences for the purpose of teaching better citizenship and character. Because the great majority, approximately 80 per cent (according to the American Youth Commission)[7] of those graduated from high school never acquire high education, the secondary school has been put to the task of providing many of the necessary implements for living. The radical changes which have taken place in the

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[5] Ibid., p. 19.

[6] George S. Counts The Senior High School Curriculum, Supplementary Education Monograph No. 29, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1926), p. 144.

[7] See, for example, Howard M. Bell Youth Tell Their Story, A survey conducted for the American Youth Commission, (Washington: American Council on Education, 1938), p. 55.

secondary school curricula were, as above suggested, largely away from the dead and non-usable subjects and in favor of those which would prepare for vocational and avocational pursuits.

IN CLERICAL EDUCATION

Just as it had been employed in the trades, the apprenticeship method was used in business to prepare bookkeepers, penman, and office workers. Business education is the oldest field of vocational education to be taught in schools. R. M. Bartlett, one of the earliest pioneers in business education in America, tells the story of how he entered upon his life's vocation. It came about that after having served as an apprentice bookkeeper, he tried without success to obtain surther practical knowledge in this line. Because he knew "Jackson's Bookkeeping almost by heart"[8] and had had requests from several friends, he determined to devote his life to the "teaching of accounts", and so made possible for others a kind of training "which he had sought in vain for himself."[9] Although there is some dispute about when and where the original business college was established, and who its leader was, the above story does indicate that the apprenticeship plan of training was, at one time, the only method of training for the office.

With the rapid growth of business, apprenticeship proved too slow a manner of acquiring the essential clerical skills. Business enterprise in pre-Civil War America required certain technical accomplishments, principally in penmanship, bookkeeping, and, of course, arithmetic. This demand for more efficient training resulted in the development of private business

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[8] Charles M. Reigner "Notes for a History of Commercial Education," The Rowe Budget, XXXII, (March, 1930), p. 9.

[9] Cheeseman A. Herrick Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1904), p. 289.

schools, a few of which had their beginning in the early nineteenth century. Among them were: Foster's Commercial School, established in 1827 in Boston; and Bartlett's Commercial College in 1834 in Philadelphia. Public secondary commercial instruction, when it entered the educational scene around 1880, was a prototype of the private, profit-seeking institutions because they later were the chief source of supply of teachers.

As early as 1915 F. B. Thompson wrote that due to the early dominance of the private business college and the resulting imitation by the public systems, clerical education "has paid little or no heed to the business world" and, on the other hand, business has paid but slight attention to business education, "to the character of courses of study, to the efficiency of teachers, or to the encouragement and development of the idea of commercial training."[10]

Industrial education, by contrast, was fortunate because, at its inception, a real cooperation between the factory and the school was established.

> There is in this country today (1915) no commercial school which has the definite connection with business that effective industrial schools have with productive shops.[11]

Since business education did not "begin as a cooperative movement" it was beset at that time, as well as at present, with numerous difficulties in incorporating the cooperative part-time idea into its method.

> The proper economic and effective plan is for the two forces to unite: the school to teach related theory (those aspects of business which can be organized into courses of instruction), and business to guide and counsel the teacher and to offer the business house as the workshop of practical experience. The business house cannot make the best and most permanent achievement with 'an actual school in the business

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[10] F. B. Thompson Commercial Education in Public Secondary Schools, (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book, 1915), p. 14.

[11] Ibid., p. 17.

> house,' any more than the school has been able to succeed with the plan of 'an actual business in the school.' Let us adopt the sounder principle of industrial education which might be stated as follows: 'Actual education in the shop and in the school.'[12]

It was the belief in the early years of this century that a cooperative plan not unlike the one now in operation in Fitchburg, Massachusetts, was not practicable to clerical education. Office work is so diverse in nature that it would require a "general kind of coordination"--it lacks the specificity which has made cooperative plans so successful in trade and industrial training.[13] Since that time, however, there have been various clerical work-study plans, such as the one in Wilmington, Delaware, carried on with success, due, to a large extent, to the dynamic and enthusiastic ability of the supervisor in charge.

IN TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

The first notable effort to give the public school curriculum a vocational turn occurred in the 1870's through the introduction of drawing into the schools of Massachusetts. Since this movement was sponsored chiefly by the industrial interests, the new subject was called "Industrial Drawing." An exhibit of the products of this class was displayed at the Centennial Exposition in 1876 and was the subject of much discussion in educational circles. Attracting considerable attention, also, at this exposition was "an exhibit of the method of shop instruction which had been developed in the technical schools of Russia"[14] to train youths for jobs. Due mainly to the leadership of President J. D. Runkle, this manual shop training system was adopted by the Massachusetts Institute

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[12] Ibid.

[13] Joseph Kahn and Joseph Klein Principles and Methods in Commercial Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1914), p. 425.

[14] Blauch, op. cit., p. 8.

of Technology,[15] and thus the first manual training school was born. Subsequent adaptations were rapid.

Although many advocates of industrial education in secondary schools confused manual training with trade training, they hoped that such instruction would become a cornerstone for industrial training in the future. Other proponents read into the issue an intellectual and disciplinary aspect. The latter was the actual reason administrators admitted it into the curriculum.[16]

Recognizing the fact that modern conditions were making new demands on workers, the State of Massachusetts, in 1906, pioneered ahead of other states by introducing and enacting legislation which created the first comprehensive program of vocational education for youths 14 to 16 years of age. A special state board of education was created to establish trade schools for the preparation of skilled workers for the factories of the state. The seventy-nineth annual Report of the Board of Education of Massachusetts, 1914-15, reports the following:

> Before 1906 the only available vocational education, apart from higher technical and professional training, was that offered by public and private commercial schools and in a few trade schools. It was formerly seriously questioned whether public funds should be used to support industrial and agricultural education of a practical character. Within a decade public opinion has changed and there is now little opposition to public support and control of vocational education of any and all kinds.[17]

This report goes on to state the need for a diversified program:

> That the American system of public education must so expand and diversify its organizations as to make extensive and real provision for vocational education is a foregone conclusion among most students of the subject, whether educators, social economists or businessmen.

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[15] Ibid.

[16] Ibid.

[17] As quoted in Nicholas Ricciardi and Ira Kibby Readings in Vocational Education, (New York: Century, 1932), p. 65.

> The cost of providing such education will to an increasing extent be regarded as a profitable form of social investment.
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> One of the most difficult of these problems grows out of the economic needs of young people who desire to be trained for a trade or other occupation, but who at the same time are obliged to aid in their own support. Boys and girls may now leave school at 14, but most industries will not admit them to the introductory stages of work of a progressive character (that is, leading to positions requiring skill, responsibility and mature intelligence) until they are at least 16. Under present conditions attendance in a vocational school should occupy the years from 14 to 16, but as pupils of these ages can earn little during this period, many of them must forego the opportunities of systematic vocational education at a critical period in their lives.[18]

By 1910 the state board in charge of all public schools included in its curricula the functions of this special board to make vocational education a recognized phase of public school programs of instruction. Thus, a first step was taken in keeping with democracy's demand for equality of educational opportunity.

IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Concurrent to interest and then action in industry, similar social and economic factors brought about a national interest in agriculture. The farmer began to produce food for the market as well as for his immediate needs. Increasingly, the production of food was removed from the source of its consumption, which created a national rather than a local problem. "Therefore, it became more and more clear that national prosperity was inseparable from production of all kinds, agricultural as well as industrial."[19]

Although there was never a danger of an exhausted food supply, at the beginning of the twentieth century this nation witnessed important

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[18] Ibid., pp. 68-9.
[19] Blauch, op. cit., p. 5.

agricultural changes due to "the reduction in the amount of public lands available for agricultural purposes and to a rapid depletion of soil and soil fertility."[20]

After the Morrill Act was passed in 1867, the agricultural colleges established by this Act did not, for a period of time, have sufficient agricultural information to teach all classes on the college lavel; and, because the students, in many cases, did not possess the prerequisite background, many of these colleges (led by Minnisota) established secondary agricultural training. These schools did not suffice the growing demand for such education, so that it was gradually extended to public high schools all over the country.[21]

The importance of these changes to education were responsible for such methods as dry farming, soil conservation, rotation of crops and irrigation. Thus, it came about that the solution of further agricultural improvement was dependent upon training the farmer to do his work more skillfully and intelligently.

IN HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION

At approximately the same time at which manual training was being organized, a movement arose to instigate similar courses in home economics education. Prior to 1880, home economics, or domestic science as it was then called, was confined in large measure to the two traditional fields--that of cooking and sewing.

> The records show that sewing was the form in which household arts was first introduced into the public school. Needlework was perhaps a relic of the teaching of the dame school, and certainly of the convent training.

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[20] Z. M. Smith "Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools", in E. A. Lee, Objectives and Problems in Vocational Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), pp. 89-90.

[21] Blauch, op. cit., p. 9.

> At all events, the early records of the Boston Schools indicate that sewing was taught as early as 1798. . . The legislative act of 1870 which made drawing obligatory in the public schools of Massachusetts, and the act of 1872 which legalized sewing and other industrial education, are the provisions on which Massachusetts bases its claim for leadership in industrial education and household arts in the schools of the United States.[22]

Although instruction in home economics increased rapidly, it was not until after the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Act that home projects assumed relative importance.

ATTITUDE OF EMPLOYERS, EDUCATORS AND LABOR TOWARD VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The beginning of this century found many groups discussing and showing alert interest in the varied fields of vocational training. The employer, the educator and the rapidly increasing unions of organized labor all realized the current need for and future importance of training for useful employment in secondary schools.

With the advent of industrial organization, groups of employers organized into many associations. Of them, the National Association of Manufacturers looms prominently in the history of vocational training. In 1904, one of its members reprimanded the policy of labor unions in restricting apprenticeship. To start the avalanche which resulted in the National Vocational Education Acts, a report stated:

> . . .had brought employers face to face with a dangerous crisis and was convinced that the only way out of the difficulty lay in the establishment of trade schools which would prepare full-fledged mechanics.[23]

After talking the utilization of trade schools for many years, committees of employers began to urge progressive measures to secure such training, but no permanent organization was effected.

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[22]Isabel Bevier Home Economics in Education, (Chicago: Lippincott, 1924), p. 141.

[23]Blauch, op. cit., p. 15.

> What has been called the first convention in the interest of the trade school movement in the United States was held in Indianapolis, June, 1907. The object was to bring together men who were keenly interested in the movement in order that they might discuss what should be done to further industrial training. The moving spirit seems to have been largely anti-union and open shop.[24]

From the beginning the National Education Association showed interest in the vocational movement.[25] In 1907 the Association evidenced strong interest by appointing a Committee on the Place of Industries in Public Education which resulted in the Association endorsing

> the establishment of trade schools, industrial schools, and evening continuation schools by municipal boards of education and recommended that, in order to make the instruction in the schools practical and efficient, the advice and approval of the trade be sought. . . .it was hoped that the graduates of the schools would be qualified as advanced apprentices or journeymen.[26]

Although the National Education Association made recommendations on vocational education, it failed to disseminate publicity concerning the movement. The leading force in educational organization was found in the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.

Employers, labor leaders, educators and social workers met in New York, November, 1906, to form a permanent organization called the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. By pronouncing eligible all persons interested in the cause of organizing as an effective means for propaganda, the Society had a large membership. This Society brough together the various forces working for industrial education and had as its prime purpose the crystallization of though on the subject. Despite the selfish interests of some, the educational group within the

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[24] Ibid., p. 16.
[25] Ibid., p. 17.
[26] Ibid., p. 18.

organization was influential and culminated its work by securing federal aid for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. This Society, in 1918, changed its name to the National Society for Vocational Education, and today is known as the American Vocational Association.[27]

THE NEW APPRENTICESHIP

Long before 1900 an active interest in apprenticeship was taken by organized labor. Labor leaders stated that they were in favor of apprenticeship for the purpose of protecting the trades from an over-supply of workers. Since competition tends to reduce wages, it was a comparatively simple method for preventing the incompetent from practicing the trade. With regard to labor leaders' opinions on industrial education in schools, some favored it, some opposed, and some were quite indifferent.

The predeominant organization of the day, the American Federation of Labor adopted, in 1907, the following statement as its policy toward the vocational education movement:

> . . .in favor of the best opportunities for the most complete industrial and technical education obtainable for prospective applicants for admission into the skilled crafts of this country, particularly as regards the full possibilities of such crafts to the end that such applicants be fitted not only for all usual requirements, but also for the highest supervisory duties, responsibilities and rewards.[28]

Labor attempted to revive apprenticeship control and condemned any form of private control of industrial education, and, for that reason, the cooperative plan was opposed. However, industrial education at public expense and federal aid for this cause was favored.

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[27]David S. Hill Introduction to Vocational Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1923), p. 170.

[28]American Federation of Labor Report of Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh Annual Convention, (Washington: National Tribune, 1907), p. 319.

THE COORPORATION SCHOOL

All of this controversy by employers, educators and labor narrowed down to two possible solutions to the problem. The first was to revive the apprenticeship system and to reorganize it in keeping with the demands of the day. It was suggested that this new apprenticeship should use the facilities of the schools as an integral part of the training. This movement made but little headway. By 1914 there were 18 railroad companies and 36 other corporations reporting such methods.

The apprentice movement had progressed further in Wisconson than in other states. In 1911, that state Senate enacted legislation to require the registration of all apprentice indentures and to approve certain branches of instruction. This act was repealed four years later in favor of another provision which gave the State Commission on Industrial Education the more inclusive power to direct and supervise the apprenticeship system. Because the decline of apprenticeship had been caused by the reorganization of labor on the factory basis, this new plan did not reach the difficulty at stake.

The second solution was observed by several groups of corporations which endeavored to promote the training of employees themselves. These enterprises formed in 1913 the National Association of Corporation Schools. Its aims were

> to aid corporations in the education of their employees by providing a forum for the interchange of ideas and collecting and making data available on successful and unsuccessful plans. Its range was soon broadened to include the entire educational aspect of industry.[29]

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[29]Blauch, op. cit., p. 9.

After several name changes, the title American Management Association was adopted in 1923. According to a letter quoted by Haynes and Jackson, this organization today encourages "training on the job."[30]

These corporation schools attempt to reduce employee turnover, to eliminate waste, to guarantee a position for the trainee (the company trains for its own works), and to incorporate the idea of definitely relating and integrating theory and practice--the cooperative idea, but with industrial rather than school guidance. Opposing forces state that such training is not well organized, and that the trainee might easily be exploited. For many establishments, this system is impracticable and greatly limits the number of men in training.[31]

These corporation schools have played an important role in public business education's realization that it is not performing a complete job. Some industrial offices hold clerical and secretarial classes, the content of which relates directly to the job activities performed by the worker.

Still a third kind of corporation school, that for training store employees, is referred to in an early government source, which speaks of department store education as "a new movement." Lord and Taylor and Stern Brothers in New York City were among the first to recognize the dollars and cents value of better trained personnel.[32]

HOW THE COOPERATIVE IDEA HAS BECOME A BASIC PRINCIPLE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Concurrent with the aforementioned trends and relationships, Dean Herman Schneider of the University of Cincinnati inaugurated another

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[30]Benjamin R. Haynes and Harry P. Jackson A History of Business Education, (Cincinnati: South-Western, 1935), p. 108.

[31]Blauch, op. cit., p. 9.

[32]Lee Galloway "National Association of Corporation Schools", in Commercial Education, Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 25, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916), pp. 83-5.

set-up with the purpose of solving one of the vocational education problems at that institution. This idea was the arrangement for coordination of the schoolroom with the shops of industry by which "students learn to translate book knowledge into terms of industrial processes."[33]

As a result of an investigation of actual working conditions in commercial engineering practice, the cooperative plan was born. The essential difference between this plan and that practiced in corporation schools, is that the school, rather than industry, is the determining factor in the establishment, operation and coordination of this work-study relationship. It took seven years to instill this theory of vocational training in the minds of administrators of the school and of cooperating employers in industry. It was actually put into practice in the College of Engineering in 1906. With a small class of twenty-seven students, the initial experiment proved so successful that this method in the College has grown and prospered until today all of that institution's enrollees secure half of their college education in the industrial shops in the vicinity of Cincinnati.[34]

> The theory of the cooperative system is very simple. Engineers, like doctors and lawyers, are trained for practice. Judgment based upon experience must supplement theory. The four-year plan of training engineers evolved in liberal arts colleges and was merely a convenient extension, in form, of the liberal arts system. Having graduated, the engineer, like the doctor, could not practice. He had a fair amount of principles, but lacked sadly in knowledge of the other elements of his profession,--men, materials, methods and mechanisms. Hence, an apprentice system came into being, covering a period of two to three years. Principles and practice were driven tandem instead of abreast.[35]

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[33]Clyde W. Park The Cooperative System of Education, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 37, (Washington, Government Printing Office, 1916), p. 59.

[34]Herman Schneider Thirty Years of Educational Pioneering, (Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati Press, 1935), p. 13.

[35]Ibid.,

First put into practice in 1906 on the collegiate level, the cooperative idea soon spread to the secondary level where it was inaugurated in 1908 in the Fitchburg, Massachusetts High School in the field of trades and industry.

Although authorities disagree, Mrs. Lucinda Prince is accredited with originating cooperative training for store education about 1905.[36] While directing a survey to determine what occupational training was needed for store clerks desiring to become salespeople, she gained the cooperation of Wm. Filene's Sons Department Store of Boston to employ on a part-time basis the initial class of eight students in her private school.[37]

> The idea was not so rapidly absorbed in commercial (clerical) work, although there are now (1920) numerous instances of its employment in public school commercial courses. It has been applied perhaps most frequently in courses in retail selling, although it has been used often and extensively in office work courses.[38]

One business educator, Frederick G. Nichols, declares that satisfactory vocational training is of little use independent of occupational experience during secondary school training; and goes on to say that "without some contact with actual working conditions one cannot hope to prepare for a worthwhile job wholly on a pre-employment basis."[39] Because of the slowness of the majority of business educators to acknowledge the validity of this trend, relatively few cooperative business-training programs have been established in secondary schools.[40]

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[36] Haynes & Jackson Op.cit., p. 146.
Also: Glenn Oscar Emick Cooperative Training in Retail Selling in the Public Secondary Schools, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 186, Commercial Series 10, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), p. 6.

[37] Ibid.

[38] Leverett S. Lyon Education for Business, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922), p. 480.

[39] Frederick G. Nichols "Commercial Education: Principles, Practices, Trends" in Edwin A. Lee, Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 442.

[40] Ibid.

THE IDEA OF WORK EXPERIENCE

The idea of work experience is so logical and simple that it has been overlooked as a most natural way in which our youth can and should be trained. Since work is the lot of all mankind, "education for living" should not exclude the major principle of the art of living--that of earning a livelihood. The psychological theory that knowledges, attitudes, skills and habits are transferrable has largely been replaced in modern thought by the logic that "one learns specific things that he does."

Education has been a long time in recognizing the worth of work as a part of its curricula. "Schools have been prone to simulate real conditions, rather than to work in them."[39] Aside from tradition, the reason that an "after-school job" is not accredited the same importance as any other course in school is due to a lack of appreciation of the educational work of labor. The student learns just as much about living on the job as in class.

In the recent depression the federal government recognized the urgent need for providing public employment for youth. The National Youth Administration, Civilian Conservation Corps and Public Works Administration have played an important part in aiding youth "to find themselves." The chief weakness of these plans has been that the work experience offered is in the main foreign to the educational aims of the individual. It is not so important, in adolescent years, to learn technical skills, as it is to learn how to work and to appreciate work.

> It is often assumed that whereas vocational training is based upon teaching particular skills, the notion of work experience, being

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[39]Leonard, op. cit., p. 12.

> more general in connotation, has little to do with techniques. If this were true, then work experience would have nothing to do with productive labor. Digging a ditch may not be a craft, but it involves, if it involves anything at all, the performance of particular manual and mental operations. These are the factors which make the occurance work.[40]

In order to learn to produce the learner must produce under "actual working conditions" according to the procedure of his chosen occupation. This includes the reles, regulations, managerial and technical devices, techniques and standards of production, formal procedures, types and arrangement of equipment, tempo of production, and any other condition which exists in a given job.

SUMMARY

The idea of cooperative work experience in secondary education grew out of the advent of vocational training in public schools. The apprenticeship system, which had held sway throughout most of history, crumbled in this country because of the mechanization brought about by a changed social and economic mode of life.

Cooperative education was in practice when the people of America first realized their drastic need for vocational education. Considered a "must" for efficient vocational training in the National Vocational Education Act of 1917, the cooperative idea has recognized the urgent need of youth to learn how to work, so as to be even better future citizens. By integrating the theory which can best be taught in the classroom with the so-necessary actual working conditions and vital experiences which can be gained on the actual job, a method of attaining the idealistic goals of vocational education has been achieved.

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[40] S. P. Hoskyn "The Idea of Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 16.

CHAPTER III

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The inclusion of the general welfare clause in the United States Constitution (Article I, Section 8) is evidence that our forefathers were far-sighted enough to provide for future interest in social progress, including education, by the federal government. The Supreme Court has recently decided the constitutionality of the federal government's financial participation in education. Although these decisions specifically deal with the Social Security Act and the Agricultural Adjustment Act, they have also clarified the legality of educational appropriations.

The Helvering et. al. v. Davis case states:

> Congress may spend money in aid of the 'general welfare'. In drawing the line between what is 'general welfare', and what is particular, the determination of Congress must be respected by the Courts, unless it be plainly arbitrary. The concept of 'general welfare' is not static, but adapts itself to the crises and necessities of the times.[1]

Another Supreme Court ruling, U. S. v. Butler, continues along this same line of thought:

> The argument is that Congress may appropriate and authorize the spending of moneys for the 'general welfare'; that the phrase should be liberally construed to cover anything conducive to national welfare; that decision as to what will promote such welfare rests with Congress alone, and the Courts may not review its determination.[2]

The federal government's interest in education began very early in the history of our country and has increased; at the present time many millions of dollars are being spent for educational purposes, both directly and through grants to the states.

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[1] U. S. Reports, Vol. 301, October Term, 1936, pp. 640-1.
[2] U. S. Reports, Vol. 297, October Term, 1935, p. 64.

The Ordinance of 1785 provided the first indications of federal interest in education, when it reserved for the schools the sixteenth section of every township in all territories outside of the original thirteen colonies. Together with a similar purpose for the Northwest Ordinance of 1787, these early grants were unrestricted as to types of education and did not have any attachments for federal supervision.

In 1867, the Department of Education (without a secretary in the President's Cabinet)[3] was established. It was designed to perform necessary and helpful services to public schools in the nation. Transferred to the Department of the Interior and listed as the Bureau of Education in 1869, it is now known as the Office of Education, a part of the Federal Security Agency. The functions of this office consist of compiling reports on the progress of education, making studies of educational problems, giving advice on educational matters and similar materials. The office holds an important advisory position with reference to proposed federal legislation on education.[4] The greatest work of this office is in supervising federal funds and in serving as a coordinating influence. It can bring to the notice of less favored schools information concerning the experience of the more advanced.

EARLY VOCATIONAL LEGISLATION

The first definite financial participation exhibited in vocational education by the government shows itself on the level of the college. The Morrill Act of 1862 allocated large blocks of land to each of the

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[3]Ellwood P. Cubberly Public Education in the United States, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1934), p. 740.

[4]Lloyd L. Blauch Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 38.

states for the purpose of agriculture and mechanical arts training. Annual appropriations have been made, with additional funds for agricultural experiment stations and extension service on a cooperative[5] basis.

Prior to vocational educational aid on a national scale, Nebraska, in 1901, pioneered the field by enacting a law which provided for vocational subject examinations for teachers. Because there were no provisions for vocational teacher-training at that time, several of its advocators introduced into Congress a bill known as the Burkett-Pollard Bill, the purpose of which was to secure federal aid for normal school instruction in agriculture, manual training, domestic science, and related subjects. Georgia agitated for federal aid to secondary vocational training, and was instrumental in establishing the argument that vocational education was expensive, that the states were already carrying a load as great as their abilities to finance, and that they could not bear the whole burden of vocational education as they did in general education.

In spite of sporadic attempts, the secondary level of education attracted little attention by the government until the beginning of this century when many influential organizations, described in Chapter II, advocated the extension of federal facilities for vocational education in the public schools.

ATTITUDE OF ORGANIZED LABOR TOWARD FEDERAL SUBSIDY OF EDUCATION

Labor carries so much influence in present federal legislation that its policies concerning vocational education are pertinent. The attitude

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[5] "Cooperative" here means that the states match federal funds.

of organized labor, always on the side of public education, "urged that vocational training be provided under public auspices[6] until 1917." With the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act, labor's favorite policy, public education for all children, had at last been accepted. This action meant recognition of the influence which public education would then extend to industrial training.

However, during an interim of some twenty years, this friendly attitude changed. The 1937 report of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor stated:

> Severe criticism has been directed toward the administration of vocational education because in many instances it permitted the control and purpose of vocational education to become an adjunct to the employment and management divisions of big corporations. This meant that instead of workers being trained for the purpose of making them efficient and to develop ability in performing work for which they were peculiarly fitted, they were merely required to acquire special skill and speed in certain jobs.
>
> So serious and so widespread were complaints against the administration of vocational education that the President created a commission to investigate before the increased appropriations of the George-Deen Act should become effective. Even before this inquiry had been finished a powerful lobby became active for the purpose of increasing the appropriation for vocational education by ten million dollars over the four and one-half million dollars recommended by the Bureau of the Budget. The Appropriation Bill for the Department of the Interior passed both Houses of Congress with an amendment adding ten million dollars to the four and one-half millions recommended for vocational education. The American Federation of Labor opposed this amendment.[7]

This change of policy by labor was not sudden, but rather a growing agitation set aflame by the then-under-debate George Deen Act. As a result of organized labor's failure to revive the enthusiasm shown up to the time of the passage of the National Vocational Education Act, it now feels that it must protect itself against the abuses of vocational

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[6] Russell, Op. Cit., p. 16.

[7] American Federation of Labor. Report of the Proceedings of the Fifty-sixth Annual Convention, (Washington: Judd & Detweiler, 1936), p. 409.

education. Some of the factors which brought about the change in the attitude of organized labor may be summarized as follows:

> Failure to encourage or allow labor participation in the development of the program.
>
> Disregard of the apprentice method of training and, hence, creation of substandard craftsmen.
>
> Failure to balance trade training programs to personnel needs of the industry, thus creating an artificial surplus.
>
> Disregard of proper labor standards as to wages in placing trade school students and graduates.
>
> Unconcern as to whether such placements displaced adult workers.
>
> Domination of many vocational training systems by "chiseling" employers.
>
> Complaisance on the part of educators toward the use of federal funds to train new sources of labor for migratory industries.
>
> Permitting student employees to work on a production basis without wages.[8]

Labor is not opposed to the practice of vocational education, but rather to its administration under present conditions.

THE EMPLOYER'S ATTITUDE TOWARD VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

> When asked what the preacher had said in his sermon on Sin, President Coolidge reported, 'He's against it.' With equal confidence one can be almost as positive about the employer's attitude toward vocational education: 'He's for it.'[9]

But here the resemblence ends. Where the employer in the past has wanted the school to prepare for specific jobs, "he is coming to believe that more understanding, versatility, and adaptability" should be developed by observance of the "why of things, rather than the how."[10]

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[8] Howell H. Broach and Julia O'Conner Parker, "The Experience of Labor with Trade and Industrial Education" Appendix to John Dale Russell and Associates Vocational Education, Staff Study No. 8, Advisory Committee on Education, Office of Education, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 258.

[9] Walter J. Dietz "The Employer's Attitude Toward Vocational Education" in Edwin A. Lee Objectives and Principles of Vocational Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 307.

[10] Ibid., p. 310.

The businessman and the industrialist are beginning to realize that they too, have responsibilities in training youth; that "education is a continuous process" which connotes that "training on the job is being looked upon as good business."[11]

With the growth of the requisite understanding by employers of their amenability in the immediate helpfulness and future progress of youth, business and industry are more and more coming to realize that the work-study plan in federal aid is educationally sound and is developing new opportunities for them to coordinate and to harmonize their aims with the objectives, functions and products of vocational education.

WORK OF THE COMMISSION ON NATIONAL AID TO VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The employers, educators, labor representatives and other interested parties which established the National Society of the Promotion of Industrial Education, in 1906 made federal-aid-for-vocational-education proposals which were vigorously discussed until 1914 when Congress authorized the appointment of a Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education.

This Commission's report directly resulted in the Smith-Hughes Act's becoming law in 1917. This permanent Act, basic to all federal aid, provided funds to the various states for vocational education in public schools of less than college grade. The National Society had planned its campaign so well that all of its principles were written into the permanent bill.[12]

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[11] Ibid., p. 316.
[12] Blauch, Op. Cit., p. 131.

> One feature of the movement which resulted in the federal legislation should have some emphasis. The enactment of the Smith-Hughes law cannot be said to represent a reaching out for authority on the part of the federal government. On the contrary, it represented an effort by groups of citizens with definite ideas regarding vocational education to promote the embodiment of those ideas in educational practice. Congress responded to this appeal by setting up a program of federal participation with the states in the promotion of vocational education.[13]

The initial Vocational Education Act (Smith-Hughes) recognized two major divisions of vocational education--agriculture, and trade and industry. Home economics was set up as part of the program in trade and industry "with the stipulation that trends not to exceed twenty per cent of the allotment for trade and industrial education should be used in home economics education."[14] Although not mentioned as such in the Act, the method of cooperative education has become an established policy of the states obtaining this federal aid.

The Smith-Hughes Act provided for funds to be distributed only to the states; consequently, an act was passed in 1924 extending its benefits to Hawaii; another in 1931 extended an allotment to Puerto Rico. In 1929 agriculture and home economics training (none for trade and industrial training) was given additional appropriations, made possible by the George-Reed Act, which also included Hawaii and Alaska on the same basis as the states. The benefits of this act, unlike the Smith-Hughes which was on a permanent basis, were stipulated to terminate at the end of five years. By 1934, Congress was urged to pass the George-Ellzey Act "which authorized an appropriation of $3,000,000 to be divided equally among agriculture, trade and industrial, and home economics education alloted to the territories as well as the states, respectively on the basis of farm population, non-farm population and rural population for the following three years only."[15]

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[13] Russell, op. cit., p. 17.
[14] Smith-Hughes Act, 39 Stat. L929-36, Section 3.
[15] Russell, op. cit., p. 19.

With the realization that the expiration of the Act would result in greatly decreased federal support for vocational education, the George-Deen Act became law in 1936. This Act introduced several new ideas in federal cooperation. First the amounts appropriated more than doubled that in previous bills. Secondly, a new field of vocational training, distributive occupational training, was acknowledged and the field of public service occupations received an indirect recognition. Third, the law explicitly prohibited the use of funds for training programs in industrial plants unless they provided bona fide vocational training. Fourth, the states were not required to match the federal fund dollar for dollar during the years immediately following the enactment of the law.[16]

The accompanying tables summarize the major federal legislative provisions regarding vocational education enacted since 1917.

TABLE I[17]

FEDERAL LEGISLATION FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Act	Year Enacted	Duration	Nature of Appropriation	Allotments provided for
Smith-Hughes	1917	Continuous	Permanent	States, Administration
Hawaii	1924	Continuous	Authorized	Hawaii
George-Reed	1929	Five years	Authorized	States, Administration
Puerto Rico	1931	Continuous	Authorized	Puerto Rico
George-Ellzey	1934	Three years	Authorized	States and Territories, Administration
George-Deen	1936	Continuous	Authorized	States, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, District of Columbia, and Administration

[16] Ibid., pp. 21-2.
[17] Ibid., p. 24.

Table II shows the amount of federal funds appropriated or authorized to be appropriated for each purpose specified in the acts now in force.

TABLE II[18]

AMOUNT OF FEDERAL FUNDS APPROPRIATED OR AUTHORIZED TO BE APPROPRIATED FOR EACH PURPOSE BY THE VARIOUS VOCATIONAL ACTS IN EFFECT IN THE YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1938

(all figures in thousands of dollars)

Purpose	Total Amount	Amount provided by Act: Smith-Hughes (1917)	Hawaii (1924)	Puerto Rico (1931)	George-Deen (1936)
Total[1]	$22,335	$7,367	$30	$105	$14,833
Agriculture	7,040	3,000	10	30	4,000
Trades and industries[2]					
Maximum	7,040	3,000	10	30	4,000
Minimum	6,438	2,400	8	30	4,000
Home Economics					
Maximum	4,632	600	2	30	4,000
Minimum	4,030	.....	...	30	4,000
Teacher Training	2,025	1,000	10	15	1,000
Distributive occupations[3]	1,200	.....	...	...	1,200
To provide minimum appropriations to the States	450	167[4]	...	...	283
Administration of the Act	550	200	...	...	350

Explanation:

1. Notice that these totals include the minimum for trades and industries and the maximum for home economics.
2. An amount not to exceed 20 per cent of the appropriation for trades and industries in the Smith-Hughes Act may be expended for home economics. This basis applies also to Hawaii, but not Puerto Rico.
3. Including the training of teachers of distributive occupations.
4. Or so much thereof as may be needed. On the basis of the 1930 census an amount of $157,978 is required to provide the minimum appropriation specified in the Smith-Hughes Act. On the basis of the 1930 census an amount of $597,497 would be required to provide the minimum appropriations specified in the George-Deen Act.

[18] Ibid., p. 24.

THE PRESIDENT'S ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Because of the strife instigated by political lobbyists and influential organizations opposed to expending further public moneys for vocational education, President Roosevelt, in 1936, appointed a committee (representing all factions) to make a series of reports on the existing relations of the federal government to vocational education.[19] This committee was appointed after the passage of the George-Deen Act, but before the appropriation of funds. The results of these studies have been published under the authorship of "The Advisory Committee on Education."

This committee stated a belief in the value of aiding vocational education, but recommended that until further investigation is made there is insufficient reason to aid vocational education unless all education is similarly helped. In brief, the pertinent recommendations of the committee are:

1. that the basic statutes providing federal aid for vocational education should receive comprehensive revision in order to overcome fundamental weaknesses. (Administration should be decentralized to the local communities.)

2. that all special federal aid for vocational education of less than college grade should be consolidated into one fund. (The states should be able to transfer at will the several funds at their disposal.)

3. that in the revision of the statutes, the determination of the educational activities to be deemed vocational (such as vocational guidance, placement and follow-up) should be transferred entirely to the states.

4. that the grants for vocational education should be conditioned by law upon the inclusion in the joint plans of provisions with respect to the maintenance of adequate protection against the industrial and commercial exploitation of children and youth

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[19] John Dale Russell and Charles H. Judd The American Educational System, (New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1940), p. 93.

in connection with vocational education for gainful employment, and in connection with employment in business or industry as a part of public vocational education. (This means, among other things, that the Departments of Labor of the various states and of the federal government, together with state and local advisory committees should cooperate in determining the policies of vocational education.

5. that the present minimum age of 14 for pupils should be retained as a general provision in connection with special federal aid for vocational education, although an exemption from any age limits should be provided in connection with club work for rural boys and girls. A special minimum of 17 should be established for instruction designed to prepare for a specific trade or industrial occupation.[20]

This most recent "attitude" of the federal government, in regard to cooperative education, is favorable, but only with regard to situations where adequate supervision of working conditions is provided.[21]

Merely because these are the recommendations of a committee appointed by the President, they cannot be considered as the official policies of the federal government, but they do and have produced considerable influence.

The attitude of the federal government toward business education has been reserved in this study for fuller discussion in Chapters V and VI.

SUMMARY

Evidence that the United States government has a deep and abiding interest in the education of its people, and in fostering that interest where need be, is clearly demonstrated by the many laws enacted. The

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[20] Advisory Committee on Education Report of the Committee, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 93-5.

[21] Ibid., p. 78.

fact that it has increasingly supported vocational education offers reason to believe that its fundamental policies are sound.

The first major milestone in the advancement of vocational education was passed when the Smith-Hughes Act was enacted in 1917, at which time all of the principal influences were in accord: employers, for the reason of letting the public schools take over the functions of training expensive to them; labor, in the realization that more youth would be served; educators, with the viewpoint of expanding public secondary education to meet the requirements of the day; and the public, because the program would benefit the general welfare of the nation.

As the need arose, additional subventions were extended to the territories, and additional funds were authorized to the various states. The most recent legislation (George-Deen, 1936) comprehended the supplementary fields of distributive and public service occupations, an intrinsic policy of which is cooperative work experience.

CHAPTER IV

PRINCIPLES OF AGRICULTURAL, HOME ECONOMICS AND TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

> Equal in importance with reading, but different in character, is a second means of education that has been neglected because it does not have the sanction of traditional school practice. Young people need to learn to work. Labor is the lot of man, and it has not been recognized as it should have been in arranging institutional education.[1]

The secondary school has reestablished the idea that, for a considerable number of students, practical constructive work is a better means of stimulating interest and initiating mental development than is any other kind of exercise.[2] Since 1908 (Fitchburg, Massachusetts) the American secondary school has utilized this type of curriculum alternating regularly scheduled instructional periods with periods of employment in business, in the home, on the farm, or in the shop. In many quarters, provisions are in the offing to handle work experience as an essential and integral part of the total education of the student.[3]

Implied in the traditional "laissez-faire" philosophy of education is the idea that the education of adolescent years should impregnate youth with as much knowledge as possible, whether it is useful or not, and therefore, because of lack of motivation and real interest, it is frequently forgotten. The newer philosophy of education, often called "social-evolutionary," admits that life is an ever-changing process and so, too, education must be flexible enough to change with the needs of the social

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[1]American Youth Commission What the High Schools Ought to Teach, Report of a Special Committee on the Secondary School Curriculum, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 15.

[2]Ibid., p. 19.

[3]S. P. Hoskyn "The Idea of Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 13.

and economic life which it serves. Cooperative education

> is in harmony with the modern interpretation of education as a continuous lifelong process and an integral part of wholesome living. In other words, cooperative education takes into account the high educational value of work for youth as well as for older people.[4]

The philosophy of cooperative education has been expressed by the president of Antioch College, an institution which is operating on the cooperative basis:

> Modern education lays, and will lay, increasingly, the stress upon development through real activities; upon experience as superior for educational purposes to instruction; upon living as a primary means to learning; upon doing as equal and complemental to reading, talking and listening. The true aim of Antioch College is to send forth rounded, developed men and women with a running start in all the ensemble of life; trained not exclusively by reading of books and hearing the expounding of books, but also by first-hand experiences with living developed by what they have done and learned for themselves in the doing of it; in self-reliance, sound judgment, initiative and the actual practice of responsibility, in activities valuable for their own sake.[5]

The remaining sections of this chapter are devoted to examining the principles of cooperative work experience applicable to the various fields of vocational training outside the interests of business education--agricultural, home economics, and trade and industrial education. Distributive and clerical cooperative education are dealt with specifically in subsequent chapters.

There are several basic principles of all phases of vocational education which are so fundamental in cooperative practices that the literature often takes them for granted. Early vocational educators, especially Charles R. Allen, Charles A. Prosser and J. C. Wright have expressed the ideas incorporated in these principles as follows:

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[4]B. W. Johnson "Trade and Industrial Education," E. A. Lee, editor, Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education, (second edition; New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), pp. 181-2.

[5]As quoted in Ibid., p. 182.

1. Vocational training should be given in the actual working environment.

2. The sequence of subject matter should be arranged and presented as it is used in the occupation itself.

3. Content of the training should have functioning value to that occupation alone.

4. Training should continue until the trainee can secure and hold permanent employment.

5. Training should meet the current demand for labor in that field.

6. Training should be sufficiently flexible to allow help when required and in the way it is required.

7. Admission to training should be limited only to those who want it, need it and are able to profit by it.

8. Sufficient flexibility should be permitted to allow each trainee to attain his top capacity.

9. Individual instruction should be given whenever necessary.

10. School administration should be sufficiently fluid to allow activities and scheduling most beneficial to the trainee.

11. Sufficient funds should be expended so that a good training job is done.[6]

12. The best current practices and occupational standards should be the basis for instruction and training.[7]

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[6]The first 11 principles are adapted from Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen Vocational Education in a Democracy, (New York: Century, 1925), pp. 211-2.

[7]Principle 12 is adapted from J. C. Wright and Charles R. Allen The Supervision of Vocational Education of Less Than College Grade, (New York: John Wiley, 1926), p. 30.

13. The coordinator should be a regular member of the school faculty.

14. All pupils participating in cooperative work experience should be considered regularly enrolled pupils of the school, rather than workers attending school.[8]

These principles are applicable to all fields of vocational education unless some other principle is introduced to supplement or vary it.

COOPERATIVE AGRICULTURAL TRAINING

The term cooperative is used for the sake of convenience in this study, although this term is not employed extensively in the fields of agricultural and home economics education. Farm and home projects are cooperative, however, to the extent that they utilize principles of cooperative work experience.

Student Relationships

The cooperative procedure most commonly accepted in agricultural training is that of selecting projects, such as swine raising, dairy cow management, poultry raising, crop production, and than analyzing each enterprise into problems and jobs.

The subject matter for study and the practical farm experience of the student is centered in and around these projects, problems and jobs, rather than around subjects. ". . .the details of organization depend upon the jobs of the enterprise, and the natural sequence of jobs becomes the sequence of subject matter organization."[9] Another author states:

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[8]Principles 13 and 14 are adapted from "Work Experience in Agricultural, Commercial and Trade and Industrial Education," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), pp. 80-1.

[9]Z. M. Smith "Agricultural Education in Secondary Schools," E. A. Lee, editor, Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 104.

> Farm practice is an integral part of the total learning experiences of each student in vocational agriculture. Farm practice enterprises serve both as a feeder for problems to be solved in the classroom and as an opportunity for carrying out classroom decisions.[10]

Norton writes that supervised farm practices are necessary composites of agricultural education.[11]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be organized in the form of projects.

> The program of supervised farm practice brings the teacher into close contact with farming conditions in the community and affords the opportunity to relate theoretical instruction to the practical needs of the farmers.[12]

> For the most part, programs of instruction in agriculture are based on the needs of the individuals in the course and on the communities in which they live. The hypothesis that the training program should be centered around the student and the local community is borne out by investigations which seem to show that the majority of those who farm do so in the community where they received their training.[13]

Norton states that local surveys are made in order to form a correct basis for the vocational agricultural courses in the schools of New York. "The teacher of agriculture ascertains the relative importance of the several farm enterprises from farm survey data and from U. S. Census reports."[14]

> . . .both the subject matter instruction and the supervised farm practice activities should be based fundamentally on the major farm enterprises of the community, with specific applications to the home farm of each pupil.[15]

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[10] Ralph H. Woods "Agricultural Education" in Forty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 208.

[11] Thomas L. Norton Education for Work, The Regent's Inquiry, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 72.

[12] John Dale Russell and Associates Vocational Education, Prepared for The Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 8, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 145.

[13] Woods, op. cit., p. 203.

[14] Norton, op. cit., p. 94.

[15] Smith, op. cit., p. 108.

> The vocational agriculture teacher bases his course on the types of farming activities in the community and thus maintains local contacts. In addition, he visits his area in connection with the supervised farm practice work.[16]

> The teacher of vocational agriculture typically enjoys the confidence of his community and exercises real leadership in the movement toward better conditions.[17]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

The Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education bulletin states that students enrolled in agricultural classes are required to do six months (of each year) directed or supervised practice in agriculture. "No choice can be made or discretion exercised by the Office of Education in dealing with this mandatory provision of section 10 of the organic act."[18] The Smith-Hughes Act, in recognizing the necessity of supervised farm practice, specifies that schools giving instruction in vocational agriculture under the provisions of the act "shall provide for directed or supervised practice in agriculture, either on a farm provided by the school or other farm, for at least six months per year."[19]

It is common practice that a farm project should be completed within approximately a year's time. The first California State Plan for Vocational Education in 1919 provided that

> not less than three hours per day of each pupil's time be devoted to applied work which shall include farm projects and the instruction pertaining thereto, and farm mechanics. . . Each pupil must conduct at least one farm project during the school year.[20]

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[16]Norton, op. cit., p. 101.
[17]Russell, loc. cit.
[18]U. S. Office of Education Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, General Series No. 1, (revised; Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), p. 45.
[19]Smith-Hughes Act, 39 Stat. L929-36, section 10.
[20]As quoted in Smith, op. cit., p. 104.

However, the trend in modern practice is toward programs which "often consist of three or four, or more projects, in addition to what is known as supplementary practice."[21]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be supervised at least six months of the year with at least one project completed per year.

Again the Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education bulletin has been consulted as to the qualifications for admission to federally-aided programs. It states:

> . . .admission should be restricted to those who are physically and mentally competent to do the work and who possess the qualifications required for employment in the type of work for which the training is offered. . . .all youths meeting minimum requirements and who need and can profit by the instruction. . .[22] . . .students must be over 14 years of age. . .[23]

It stands to reason that if a boy is not qualified, nor able to profit from agricultural cooperative work experience he should (and is) prevented from partaking of such instruction and supervision. To do otherwise would be a misuse of public funds.

> Graduation from the eighth grade, possession of facilities necessary for supervised farm practice work, and an interest in farm training are the standard requirements of high school departments of agriculture, (in New York State). Sometimes pupils who do not have all these qualifications are admitted. Frequently, village boys who have inadequate facilities for supervised farm practice work are admitted.[24]

PRINCIPLE: Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age, who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupation.

> Standards should be attainable; yet they should be high enough to require serious effort in order to reach them.[25]

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[21] Woods, op. cit., p. 207.
[22] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 47.
[23] Smith, op. cit., p. 106.
[24] Norton, op. cit., p. 58.
[25] Woods, op. cit., p. 108.

PRINCIPLE: Sufficient skill and understanding should be obtained to enable the student to perform efficiently on the job.

School Relationships

Cooperative programs in agriculture are not as rigidly administered by the school as are other fields of secondary school training due to the decentralized and seasonal nature of the work. According to the Schmidt survey, 45 of the 51 persons answering the questionnaire indicated that "the administration of the all-day vocational agricultural course is elastic and not rigid or highly standardized."[26] This factor implies (1) that entrance and attendance requirements should be elastic enough to allow special non-diploma students to attend school for this specific purpose and for a limited time; (2) that class instruction should adhere to individual differences as to kind and amount of work experience desired and required; (3) that vocational work be allowed in those cases where there is only a limited time for schooling.[27]

PRINCIPLE: For successful training, the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

Many agricultural curricula provide related knowledges in physics, chemistry, accounting, fertilizers, soils and markets, and often offer an opportunity for the pupil who encounters special problems to become informed as to their solution by special readings and laboratory experiments which generally suffice for the needed appreciation and control. Hill states that the "teachers of science may well correlate elementary science with the growing of agricultural products."[28] In one high school

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[26]G. A. Schmidt Vocational Education in Agriculture in Federally-Aided Secondary Schools, Doctor's Dissertation, No. 534, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932), pp. 80-1.

[27]Ibid., p. 81.

[28]David S. Hill Introduction to Vocational Education, (New York: Macmillan, 1933), p. 217.

in New York, the bookkeeping teacher "cooperates with the agriculture teacher in the work of organizing information in farm bookkeeping. This practice, however, is not common."[29]

PRINCIPLE: Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

If the cooperative project in agriculture is one of production, it should be carried on on a commercial basis, and to be successful in the viewpoint of the school must show a profit in dollars and cents as well as invaluable knowledge gained. Woods states that often supervised farm practices "supply some equity in farming."[30] However, since the depression of the early 1930's, emphasis is being placed increasingly on more intelligent use of the resources available.

> Particularly since the beginning of the depression, there has been a general recognition of the need for greater emphasis on agricultural economics, on land management and soil conservation, and on problems of marketing. Instruction in such phases of agriculture is now being given increasing attention in the federally-aided programs.[31]

These non-productive projects, such as home beautification, reclaiming an eroded field, or equipping a home-farm shop, compensate the student only in so far as they improve his standard of living or general ability to farm. Unlike those in the trade and industrial, distributive and clerical education fields, an agriculture student need not receive remuneration for his cooperative work experience, although such practice is desirable when it can be carried through.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative students should be compensated by increased ability and understanding, although money is often desirable.

The majority of schools offering agricultural education do not give credit toward graduation for the cooperative ventures the pupil successfully

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[29] Norton, op. cit., p. 95.
[30] Woods, op. cit., p. 208.
[31] Russell, op. cit., p. 145.

carried on. The work experience required is usually a specified (by the State Plan) part of the course content. Credit for work experience is combined in credit for the course, but is not set up separately as a rule.[32]

PRINCIPLE: Credit for cooperative work experience should be included as part of the vocational course.

Coordinated farm projects should include a "report including both a story and a complete accounting for the entire project period."[33] This implies that detailed records of method, time, cost, income and other important factors are learned and used in the project.

Records kept by the boy "should be as simple as possible and yet should be adequate enough to secure the learnings which the teacher feels should be secured."[34] Another effective aid in farm practice is the progress report which stimulates the boy in "carrying out more effectively the necessary practices in order to reach desired production goals."[35]

> It is highly important that they appreciate the uses which correct and accurate records may serve, and that they learn to keep such records, Students need to see how records can explain the reasons for success or the lack of it in project work.[36]

All federally-aided programs require that periodic reports be made to the state office.

PRINCIPLE: Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer (parent), and to the state office should be required.

> The all-day school is relatively more popular than the part-time or evening school in the agricultural vocational education programs--partly for the reason that agricultural education fits rather easily into the program of the rural day school.[37]

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[32] Woods, op. cit., pp. 204-7.
[33] Hill, op. cit., p. 221.
[34] Woods, op. cit., p. 108.
[35] Ibid., p. 109.
[36] Ibid., p. 110.
[37] Lloyd L. Blauch Federal Cooperation in Agricultural Extension Work, Vocational Education and Vocational Rehabilitation, Office of Education Bulletin No. 15, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935), p. 220.

More recently, the short unit course has become prevalent. "The pupils pursue the usual courses in the high school, but take a minimum of 90 minutes a week in a short unit course in technical agriculture and meet the requirements for six months supervised farm practice."[38] However, because agriculture is such a broad field, the typical all-day course is four years in length, although some schools offer it in three and some in two years.[39]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative class schedules should be comprehensive in that they cover two or more years of secondary schooling.

> Vocational agriculture (in New York). . .generally requires five periods a week in Agriculture the first year, and ten periods a week during the other years.[40]
>
> Except for the first year of the four-year program, (agricultural classes in New York) are ordinarily scheduled for double periods, and pupils are required to carry out extensive home projects as a part of their training.[41]

Woods believes, however, that the typical practice is to schedule double periods in Agriculture throughout the curricula.[42]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative classes should be scheduled for double periods throughout the curricula.

Coordination

Probably the most important, because it is inherent in the definition of cooperative work experience itself, is the principle that the theory of school should be correlated with the practice of the work which the student experiences. This means that if a student is raising poultry, in cooperative agricultural training, he should learn in school the theory and best practices of doing that specific work.

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[38]Smith, op. cit., p. 106.
[39]Woods, op. cit., p. 205.
[40]Norton, op. cit., p. 81.
[41]Francis T. Spaulding High School and Life, The Regent's Inquiry, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), pp. 142-3.
[42]Woods, loc. cit.

> (The project) often makes it possible to get practice on the home farm in almost everything taken up in the classroom. Thus, the point of view of the teacher in the classroom is to influence practice outside the classroom. It is expected that 'what is taught in school will be used outside the school.'[43]

> Because of the very extensive use of home projects as a means of providing participating (training) experiences in farming, it is very essential that pupils enrolled in vocational agricultural classes in secondary school live on a farm, or that they have other adequate farm facilities for engaging in supervised farm practice work, in order to make sure that 'the vocational training environment is the working environment itself or a replica of the work environment.'[44]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

> The local teacher in the vocational agricultural course determines the course content, with the approval of the principal of the high school. The teachers receive assistance on this problem from the advisory boards of farmers, committees of farmers, and, of course, the Bureau of Agricultural Education of the State (New York) Education Department.[45]

PRINCIPLE: Effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advise and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

The teacher of vocational agriculture also acts as supervisor if the pupil works on his own (parents') farm, or coordinator if he works on another's farm. Although the specific quantity and quality are left to the discretion of the various States, the Office of Education[46] does require that the cooperative teacher must have had college training in both technical and professional courses and practical experience in the successful management of a farm or of projects on a commercial basis. Such an instructor becomes a master of his "future farmers," rather than a teacher of specific subject matter; he teaches theory only when it is needed for understanding and for use.[47]

> It is recognized that the teacher of vocational agricultural education must be preeminently practical--with understanding, sympathy for youth and with ability to do.[48]

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[43]Ibid., p. 208.
[44]Schmidt, op. cit., p. 46.
[45]Norton, op. cit., p. 75.
[46]Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 21.
[47]Prosser and Allen, op. cit., p. 281.
[48]Hill, op. cit., p. 217.

PRINCIPLE: Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training should be required of cooperative teacher-coordinators.

HOME ECONOMICS AND COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

Home economics is a field

> far in advance, perhaps of any other in the way it is building its program on the needs and interests of the students, bringing the life of the home and community into the classroom, using real-life problems with the many interrelationships as the center of instruction, and putting classroom learning to use in living. By their very nature, experiences in home economics offer unusual opportunities for cooperative action with all the give and take such enterprises mean.[49]

There are three types of home economics programs offered on the secondary level. The first is called the general course which uses, generally, the least number of cooperative principles of the three. It utilizes the project method to some extent, but as a rule, without remuneration.

> Like industrial arts in the industrial field, home economics courses, as defined by the (New York) State Education Department, are not considered vocational courses. They are intended to contribute to the general education of the pupil by aiding in her understanding of the social and economic needs of the individual and the family.[50]

In the second type, vocational homemaking education, the home project is as near a cooperative work experience as is practiced in this field at present. The character of this type differs from the others in that it might be done in the classroom.

> Courses in vocational homemaking are organized for the purposes of training for homemaking and of giving 'the pupil some idea of opportunities growing out of this field which may be used for wage earning.'[51]

The third type is the vocational home economics trade course, as is found in strictly vocational schools. For example, the Joseph A. Maybin

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[49] Ivol Spafford A Functioning Program of Home Economics, (New York: John Wiley, 1940), p. 2.

[50] Norton, op. cit., p. 40.

[51] Ibid., p. 41.

School for Graduates of New Orleans, the Manhattan Trade School of New York City, the Opportunity School of Denver, the Manual High and Vocational School of Kansas City, (Missouri), and the Milwaukee Vocational School all offer definite opportunities, not only for part-time services, but also for cooperative enterprises such as cafeteria counter girls and altering and sewing for retail stores.

As an instructional device the field of home economics has not used cooperative work experience as extensively as have other fields of vocational education. Perhaps this is due largely to the nature of home economics itself. Its skills and knowledges are in the main for the consumer, that is, for those twenty million women who operate the homes of America. Although home economics education is not strictly vocational in character,[52] excluding domestic help which lacks social status, the opportunities for making a career of its services are relatively limited on the secondary level.

Prior to the passage of the National Vocational Education Act (1917) comparatively few schools in the United States offered opportunities in vocational home economics.[53] Although the Smith-Hughes Act made definite allotments of funds to this field (twenty per cent of trade and industrial)--at the eleventh hour--and it has received additional appropriations from the George-Reed (1929), George-Ellzey (1934), and George-Deen (1936) Acts, it "has until recently had only meager support from the federal allotments for vocational education."[54]

Home economics in the public secondary school calls its cooperative

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[52]Maude Williamson and Mary Stuary Lyle Homemaking Education in the High School, (New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1941), p. 75.

[53]Morris Sheppard, Vocational Education in the United States, Document No. 309, Speech in the U. S. Senate, 71st Congress, 3rd Session, February 17, 1931, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 12.

[54]Russell, op. cit., p. 139.

method the home practice or home project, depending upon

> whether the experience is limited to the repetition at home of relatively simple activities carried on in the classroom or whether it represents the attack on and solution of more comprehensive problems in which new learnings are likely to take place.[55]

> The use of the home project device is a distinct phase of the home-making course, It is justified as an aid in keeping the courses in line with home needs, and in giving the pupil more extensive and independent practice than would otherwise be possible.[56]

One writer states that

> home activity will be effective as an addition to school experiences in proportion as:

1. It is undertaken by the girl herself because she is interested in it and desires to do it.
2. It meets a real need in the home and has a favorable effect there.
3. It grows out of problems which the girl has met.
4. It has objectives which the girl can and does understand.
5. It can be carried out by the girl in her own home with the cooperation of the family.
6. It is of suitable scope and difficulty to challenge the girl's ability, but not to discourage her.
7. It provides for the acquisition of new abilities and powers.
8. It is planned carefully.
9. The plan is executed successfully with adaptations as conditions demand.
10. It is guided during all stages as needed.
11. It results in a recognition of satisfactory improvement.[57]

Some of the pertinent principles of cooperative home economics here implied will be discussed at greater length in the remaining parts of this section.

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[55]Office of Education Home Economics in Public High Schools 1938-1939, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 213, Home Economics Education Series No. 24, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941), p. 81.

[56]Norton, op. cit., p. 70.

[57]Williamson and Lyle, op. cit., p. 245.

Student Relationships

Directed experience in the home is an essential part of the vocational program in homemaking.

> Learning experiences in home economics under the direction of the teacher need to be provided through both group and individual work in the classroom, the home, and the community. The achievement of any given objective is one of the most important problems of teaching.
>
> When the major part of an individual's learning experience is provided in the home it may be defined as a home project. In order that home projects may insure individual growth, it is essential that the pupil: (1) recognize needs and problems in her own home and family living; (2) plan possible solutions for these problems; (3) execute this plan; (4) and evaluate the results.[58]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be organized in the form of projects.

One of the important achievements to the credit of the home and school has been the close cooperation which has been fostered between these institutions.

> The requirement of home projects as part of the learning activities of the home economics pupils in full-time schools has brought the problems of the home close to the educational system and has promoted a contact between the school and the home that has been important for the development of suitable relations between these two social institutions.[59]

There is much evidence that community contacts are made by teachers in vocational programs. Such contacts enable the teacher to become better acquainted with community conditions, make it possible for her to become familiar with future pupils, and make entrance into the home for the purpose of guiding cooperative learning experiences more feasible.[60]

> Wide familiarity with the community and the homes is helpful in building the curriculum. It is also essential in planning the

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[58] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 61.

[59] Russell, op. cit., p. 140.

[60] Adelaide S. Baylor and Florence Fallgatter "Development and Trends in Home Economics Education," in E. A. Lee, Editor Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education, (second Edition; New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 127.

special teaching units and in selecting the activities to use at school and to be carried out at home.[61]

A study of the job of homemaking influences both the curriculum, the content and the methods of teaching.[62]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

As in other fields of vocational education for which federal aid is granted, certain conditions must be met in admitting students to this program. Secondary home economics classes must be under public control and supervision, should train toward the goal of useful employment, and should admit only students 14 years of age or over who desire and can profit from such training.[63] In the sense that general standards of living would be improved, literature in this field assumes that everyone needs this type of training.

PRINCIPLE: Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age, who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupation.

Teacher guidance will be needed while the work (experience) is going on, recognizing work already done, encouraging when things seem to be at a standstill, prodding a little when the girl seems about to quit.[64]

The teacher and the school really concerned with the value of the instruction being given will make plans for follow-up of the pupils after the period of formal instruction is over. A sampling of the group for study from year to year will probably be adequate.[65]

Although in the State of New York practically no follow-up work is being done among home economics or homemaking graduates and none of the non-graduates,[66] Baylor and Fallgatter admit that follow-up studies are essential to successful programs.[67]

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[61] Norton, op. cit., p. 140.
[62] Ivol Spafford Fundamentals in Teaching Home Economics, (New York: John Wiley, 1935), p. 314.
[63] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 47.
[64] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 280.
[65] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., p. 314.
[66] Norton, op. cit., p. 206.
[67] Baylor and Fallgatter, op. cit., p. 128.

> Unless a home economics or homemaking class is part of a large high school which has a placement system, only an informal and unorganized employment service is used. Sometimes even this service is lacking. When homemaking is given in a vocational trade and industrial school, more attention is paid to placement and follow-up.[68]

On the other hand, when spoken of as visits made during the cooperative experience, a questionnaire study published by the government reports that approximately 89 per cent of the high school teachers in the country make home visits,[69] which are in reality follow-up practices by the teacher of the pupil on the job.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should perform the functions of guidance, placement and follow-up for its trainees.

> Teacher guidance must help the girl see the activity she is considering for home project work in its proper relationship to her level of experience, home conditions for successful solving, and school learning.[70]

PRINCIPLE: Sufficient skill and understanding should be obtained to enable the student to perform efficiently on the job.

The following two paragraphs illustrate how the home economics project can justifiably include principles of cooperative work experience.

> A girl of no previous experience undertakes to make ten shirts of exactly the same pattern and material. From the making of the first she gets a large amount of new experience, accompanied by a certain amount of technical knowledge, appreciation, etc. In making the remainder, she increases her skill, organization of effort, etc. Parallel with her work, she can be helped to insight, to social hygienic, and other general aspects of her work. If, after making the ten shirts, further increments should be small, then the additional value of the project has largely been realized. Further making of shirts would be valuable for production rather than education.

> An inexperienced girl, directed by a competent teacher, gives three hours daily for a month to providing the breakfasts of a family of six. Linked up with the actual preparation of food and washing of the dishes, will be such technical matters as planning variations in menus, selecting and buying materials, keeping suitable accounts.

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[68] Norton, op. cit., p. 87.
[69] Home Economics in the Public High School 1938-1939, op. cit., p. 83.
[70] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 4.

> Related studies of nutrition, markets, technical processes, etc., can be linked up to, and interpreted by the teacher.[71]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be of sufficient educational value to enable the acquisition of mastery of the skills and understandings needed for that job.

School Relationships

> Many schools have been working in the direction of a flexible school schedule with a program based on the problems the pupils' parents and the school think are important.[72]

Spafford believes that a flexibility of pupil grouping is greatly to be desired.[73]

> Some schools excuse girls for a class period every week or two in recognition of the time given at home to such work (projects).[74]

PRINCIPLE: For successful training the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

Definitely planned home activities, according to Spafford, should be and are related to school instruction in many vocational home economics programs.[75]

> School and home should cooperate. The school should teach in terms of home problems, as meals for the family and furnishings for definite rooms of the house; the school should use the house-work of the home as a practice field; the home should use the products of school work.[76]

> More real occupational content is being taught for use and more direct methods are being employed in teaching it. Ability to do home work properly and intelligently is becoming more important than test tubes and calories.[77]

Spafford believes that the value of home economics instruction is determined by the quality of work done at home on the job.[78]

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[71] David Snedden, Vocational Education, (New York: MacMillan, 1929), p. 261.

[72] Family Living and Our Schools, Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, Co-Chairmen, The Joint Committee on Curriculum Aspects of Education for Home and Family Living, (New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1941), p. 168.

[73] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., p. 152.

[74] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 282.

[75] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., p. 230.

[76] Benjamin R. Andrews, Education for the Home, Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 36, Part I, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914), p. 26.

[77] Prosser and Allen, op. cit., p. 409.

[78] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 4.

PRINCIPLE: Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

First year home projects are frequently short, although they increase in length, breadth and comprehensiveness through the curriculum.[79]

> A good home project program, like the good school program, should have both depth and breadth for the individual girl. Projects related to various aspects should be carried out.[80]

"Home projects may include such a wide variety of cooperative activities, and each activity may include so many different jobs,"[81] that it is assumed that the following principle applies to home economics cooperative education. Another substantiating factor is that often several projects are undertaken throughout the year, depending upon the type of activity selected by the student.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.

> Although there is a trend toward wage-earning possibilities in cooperative home economics practice on the secondary level, opportunities are as yet extremely limited.[82]

Spafford cites and interesting experiment which has been carried on in the Brush (Colorado) High School:

> . . .the third year of home economics (is) directed toward training household assistants. The course is set up in six-week units plus a twenty-four hour apprenticeship period in homes.[83]

Because the home project is usually performed in the students' home, Spafford believes that preparation for homemaking is primarily thought of as a non-wage-earning occupation.[84]

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[79] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., p. 232.
[80] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 287.
[81] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., pp. 233-4.
[82] Ibid., p. 239.
[83] Ibid.
[84] Ibid.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative students should be compensated by increased ability and understanding, although money is often desirable.

> A certain amount of home practice and home project work should be considered a part of the regular school work and should not be separated either in giving grades or credits. If the school can work out a plan by which girls doing a high quality of work in this minimum program and meeting other requirements can earn additional credit, this seems wholly desirable.[85]

As in agricultural education, high school credits are given for the home economics course, but not for the cooperative work experience (project) alone.[86] The home project is usually considered to be an outside requirement of the class work.

> . . .home projects are a form of laboratory work in which the home is the laboratory and in which the girl works and studies individually; therefore, credit should not be given for it except as part of the homemaking course.[87]

PRINCIPLE: Credit for work experience should be included as part of the vocational course.

As in all education, it has been found that proper guidance can best be given if cumulative records are kept throughout the school life of the pupil. Such records are invaluable in aiding the teacher to understand and appreciate the student.

> . . .all schools which receive reimbursement from federal funds for home economics classes are expected to make provision for students to carry on certain work outside the classroom to gain experience in typical homemaking activities, and they require that some form of records be kept of what the students do.[88]

> Out-of-school use of home economics instruction, home practice and home project records are needed. These enable the teacher and the student to check easily from term to term the breadth of the application of school learning being made at home.[89]

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[85]Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 289.
[86]Ibid., p. 4.
[87]Williamson and Lyle, op. cit., p. 256.
[88]Clara M. Brown, Evaluation and Investigation in Home Economics, (New York: Crofts, 1941), p. 207.
[89]Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 314.

PRINCIPLE: Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer (parent) and to the state office should be required.

Norton states that there can never be too many individuals who are able successfully to manage their own and their family living in any community.[90]

> It seems clear that if homemaking education is vocational, it differs from the other types very markedly in that it cannot be overproduced in terms of the number of individuals given such training. There is no danger of turning out too many people well equipped with all the information and skills necessary for success in homemaking activities.[91]

PRINCIPLE: The number of students who might be cooperatively trained should be without limit.

Opposed to the current theory of many educators that vocational education should be given as near the time of employment as possible, it was found in the survey published by the government of home economics programs throughout the country in 1938-9, that the most frequently reported instruction was in the ninth grade (62 per cent).[92]

> No definite standards are set up for admission to the advanced homemaking or home economics courses (in New York). Pupils who have reached the grade in which a course is offered are generally admitted, if they wish to take the course.[93]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be offered on the grade level best suited to the needs of the students.

Coordination

Several former Chiefs of the Home Economics Education Service in the Office of Education believe that vocational training requires "contact with the vocation" itself, which can best be accomplished by the coordination

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[90] Norton, op. cit., pp. 95-6.
[91] Russell, op. cit., p. 209.
[92] Home Economics in the Public High School 1938-9, op. cit., p. 46.
[93] Norton, op. cit., p. 57.

of school instruction and work experience.

> Recognizing that certain learning experiences can be provided best outside the classroom, definite provisions for a home project method (or a combination of home projects and home practice) are made in day-school programs.[94]

Spafford states that

> The school brings the experiences of others to bear on problems and has contact with a wide range of materials, but its teachings are theory until the individual or the home tries them out in real-life situations.[95]

According to a government bulletin

> For many years home economics leaders have urged schools to encourage the organization of class experiences around home problems and the carrying over into homes of the skills and understandings acquired in the classroom.[96]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

Where the home practice and home project methods are used, the federally reimbursed coordinator (more often spoken of as the vocational homemaking teacher) must perform duties similar to those of the agricultural coordinator or supervisor. She must coordinate the work-study program as well as other activities in the school with the community. To determine the need and practicality of a cooperative project each pupil's house is visited prior to, during and at the termination of the project.[97] Some of her additional duties include: keeping records of the students and reporting to the principal and the state supervisor at periodic intervals; contacting the parents of each student to determine satisfactory progress; interviewing the pupil concerning adjustments

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[94] Baylor and Fallgatter, op. cit., p. 126.
[95] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 274.
[96] Home Economics in the Public High School 1938-9, op. cit., p. 81.
[97] Ibid., p. 42.

and improvements; changing the work experience when it is felt necessary; creating functional classroom instruction based upon the work experience whenever possible; encouraging development of home projects into habitual practices; and matching the student with the job as closely as possible.[98]

Occupational requirements for teachers are as specific in this as in the other fields of vocational education. Although the same qualifications apply to vocational homemaking teachers as to agricultural instructors, cited on page 52, they are supposed to manage their own homes or to have had other practical experience in homemaking.[99]

> The teacher with wide experience and sound education, wholesome, well-balanced point of view in regard to life and teaching, and a satisfying pattern of personal and social living has much to bring to the educational situation.[100]

PRINCIPLE: Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training should be required of cooperative teacher-coordinators.

TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION UTILIZES PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE

"Cooperative education in some form is undoubtedly the best type and will continue to be most important in the trade and industrial field.[101] Mainly because of the inherent nature of this field of vocational education and also because this is the field in which cooperative education got its start, trade and industrial cooperative education has made great strides from a concept to a theory and philosophy which are accepted on many sides as being thoroughly sound.

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[98] Spafford, (1935), op. cit., p. 274.

[99] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 39.

[100] Spafford, (1940), op. cit., p. 87.

[101] B. W. Johnson, "Trade and Industrial Education," in E. A. Lee, Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 181.

> This trend toward cooperative education in the trades and industrial field will tend to bring back the proper balance between education and work that was prized in the best days of the old apprenticeship. The value of this apprenticeship was not alone in the personal relation of master to worker, or in the apprentice learning with a skilled craftsman, valuable as these factors are, but also in the responsibility of the craftsman for the learner and for realizing in this learner the best ideals of his craft. This human quality is the highest value in such apprenticeship. It is possible to bring this back again in the new apprenticeship that cooperative education makes possible--to bring again to industry its share in the responsibility for realizing in the generation that is coming the best ideals of craftsmanship in terms of modern industry.[102]

Student Relationships

One of the more important techniques used extensively in the trade and industrial cooperative program is the job analysis and all that it imposes in the determination and accomplishment of both job and training objectives. Russell states that

> some excellent work has been done through the agency (trade and industrial training) on the problem of analyzing jobs and occupations for the training elements. For example, such an occupation as granite cutting has been thoroughly analyzed and the units of training needed in preparation for the various types of operations worked out in detail. This process of job analysis has been carried through for a number of occupations and has proved of great value in setting up sound programs of specific vocational training.[103]

To be effective, trade and industrial cooperative education must be administered in terms of what the worker is expected to do on the job, which includes all types of learning, i.e., skills, how it is done; knowledges, what the learner must know; and attitudes, personal relationships; and by methods, how these skills, knowledges and attitudes can best be taught. Each of these factors must be accorded their proper emphasis, and should be considered in relationship to each other. Cooperative education is not vocational unless it permits the efficient

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[102] Ibid., p. 182.
[103] Russell, op. cit., pp. 162-3.

use of these constituents.[104]

In order to bring about proper guidance, the method of job analysis is most widely used and accepted.

> . . .job analysis shows the teacher what the worker must do, when he must do it, where, and under what conditions the work is done. It notes problems and difficulties, shows relationships with other jobs and persons. It points out subject matter requirements both vocational and related, indicates the physical and mental type of person to be selected for the courses if training is to bring maximum results.[105]

Lawyer continues by saying:

> This job analysis may be simply a job description, but will more likely include summaries of duties, difficulties and problems faced, or perhaps a detailed statement of processes involved in their proper sequence. Time and motion study may be injected in occupations involving repetitive manual operations. . .
>
> Steps to be taken in making any such analysis vary with the job being analyzed, but will in trade and industrial cooperative training always include observation of the worker at work, interviews with workers and employers and with prospective student workers. The teacher's own experience will contribute much, as will his reading. His function, however, is that of assembly, organization, and administration of pertinent facts; the job of the true educator.[106]

Graham, Whitney and Fleming believe that "instructional material for all vocational training should be based on an analysis of acceptable performance of what the practitioner of the vocation does."[107]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

> While a minimum age of 14 is the only age requirement for all-day schools in the vocational education acts, the actual age of entrance

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[104] Kenneth Lawyer, "Distributive Education in the High School," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 89.

[105] Ibid.

[106] Ibid., p. 90

[107] Ben G. Graham, Gerald D. Whitney, Joseph W. Fleming, "Instructional Notes and Aids in Industrial Education," the Forty-Second Yearbook for the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 121.

> upon a vocational training program should be regulated locally at the minimum or at such a point above this minimum as will insure that those completing the training will be mature enough to be accepted as workers in the occupation. Admission should be restricted to those who are physically and mentally competent to do the work and who possess the qualifications required for employment in the type of work for which the training is offered.
>
> Interest in learning a trade and ability to do the work should be the determining factors even after admission. A probationary period of attendance for this purpose will enable the school to determine the student's real ability. While communities maintaining all-day vocational schools should offer opportunities for vocational education to all youths meeting minimum requirements who need and can profit by the instruction, care must be exercised to prevent training too many in any particular field of work.[108]

Selection of pupils to take part in the industrial cooperative program in Spartanburg, South Carolina, High School is as follows:

> Selection is begun by issuing application forms to all interested persons 16 years of age or older. This is usually done in the spring. In making application, the pupil expresses a desire for the particular trade or occupation in which he is interested and, upon selection, every effort is made to place him in the desired work.[109]

The Central High School in Chattanooga, Tennessee, requires that the pupil-learner must be enrolled in the High School, that he has completed a minimum of half his courses toward graduation, that he is at least 16 years old, that he is enrolled in the occupational training course "under written agreement with the school, the employer, himself, and his parents, and must be approved by the local advisory committee."[110]

PRINCIPLE: Admission to cooperative work experience should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age, who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupations.

> On the whole, vocational industrial schools are conscious of the necessity of an adequate guidance program, but far too few of them possess desirable facilities.[111]

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[108] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 47.

[109] "Work Experience in Agricultural, Commercial and Trade and Industrial Education," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), pp. 72-3.

[110] Ibid., p. 73.

[111] Norton, op. cit., p. 84.

However, Norton continues by stating that these schools consider placement an essential part of their program. Deriving impetus from the U. S. Office of Education, a comprehensive follow-up study was made in New York in 1937 of trade and industrial graduates (cooperatively trained).

> Follow-up work in vocational industrial classes was given a decided impetus by the request during the past year from the U. S. Office of Education for a statement of students placed in the occupations for which they were trained, or in allied occupations.[112]

> Vocational industrial and vocational technical schools consider the placement of graduates as an obligation of the school. . . .The chief agents used are: placement officers in the employ of the school, principals of vocational schools and shop teachers, advisory boards and committees, and the New York State Junior Employment Service, either independently or in cooperation with the schools.[113]

Johnson states that placement has become

> an unquestioned responsibility of any vocational training program. Placement, too, means far more than finding a job. It means the selection of both the job and the youth trained to take it, together with follow-up to insure successful adjustment with consequent advancement in that job.[114]

> The procedure for selection, for guidance, for placement, and for follow-up should be suited to the organizations which are being used to meet the varied needs and varied demands for trade and industrial education.[115]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should perform the functions of guidance, placement and follow-up for its trainees.

> The school should see that no pupil leaves school, so far as the school can prevent it, until he has attained a vocational competence sufficient to allow him to make a beginning. This does not imply the need for more stringent laws with respect to compulsory education. . .[116]

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[112] Ibid., p. 87.
[113] Ibid.
[114] Johnson, op. cit., p. 194.
[115] Ibid., p. 171.
[116] Ibid., p. 205.

PRINCIPLE: Sufficient skill and understanding should be obtained to enable the student to perform efficiently on the job.

School Relationships

Trade and industrial cooperative programs must meet the needs of the individual students. For this reason, such programs "must be free from rigid credit requirements for progress. . .[117] Flexibility in administration for individual cases is advocated so that

> special long-view programs of acceleration for bright pupils or adjustments for pupils who are retarded much beyond their years as the result of earlier difficulties, may be planned by the head counselor in cooperation with the subject teachers. One pupil may need more trade drawing, another less mathematics. . .[118]

Other related subjects or additional work experience may be to the best advantage of the individual. Since the program is operated for the make of the individuals it enrolls, it must give primary concern to their well-being.

PRINCIPLE: For successful training the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

A notable example of a public secondary school which trains industrial students in the occupational environment is the Beverly, Massachusetts, High School, which cooperates with the United Shoe Machine Company.[119] A few of the reasons for this successful relationship are pertinent principles of cooperative work experience.

In order to correlate effectively classwork with the work on the job, it is advisable to have all students in that class participating in a like occupation. The common experiences of these jobs should be the basis for the school course. This fact, that all cooperative students

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[117]Robert Hoppock and Nathan Luloff, "Vocational Guidance," in the Forty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 101.

[118]Ibid., p. 100.

[119]Prosser and Allen, op. cit., p. 228.

work for the same company, has accounted for a great deal of the success of the plan at Beverly.

However, since 1931, a program called Diversified Occupations has been authorized on a cooperative basis by federally-aided trade and industrial education for any community regardless of its size or character of its occupations. The enrollees are given work experience approximately twenty hours a week, while going to school on a half-time basis under the direction of a trade and industrial coordinator.[120]

Although contrary to the principle that trade and industrial cooperative work experience should be held in homogeneous groups, the essence of this scheme is to extend the benefits of trade and industrial cooperative training to small communities which cannot support training courses in single trades. It attempts to provide group training for a variety of unspecified occupations which deal with production.

PRINCIPLE: Homogeneous grouping should prevail in cooperative work experience programs.

> That which contributes to the learner's ability to do and to know and understand the technical theory of his craft has long been accepted as essential teaching content. The industrial relations that condition and affect him and his craft and which he must understand and appreciate are scarcely thought of as a very important part of the content he should be taught. Working conditions, personal hygiene, industrial development of his industry, shop relationships, laws and ordinances, public relations, and personal characteristics are some of the facts and forces a trade and industrial cooperative student should understand.[121]

The Fort Smith, Arkansas, trade and industrial program divides its instruction into three sections:

> general related, technical related, and job experience. In the general section, subject matter was taught that would be of general value on the job. The technical section, as the name suggests, had

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[120] Russell, op. cit., p. 161.

[121] Johnson, op. cit., p. 201.

> to do with the technical phase of the work; while the job experience was concerned with work on the job. Technical books, magazines, pamphlets, and other supplementary materials were used in connection with the class-work part of the program.[122]

PRINCIPLE: Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

The Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education states:

> If a part-time pupil is to be considered as an employed worker, he should receive, for the time he is employed, a monetary wage at a rate comparable to wages paid to other employees.[123]

The trade and industrial cooperative student of the Pheonix, Arizona, High School "usually is paid what other beginners are paid in the occupation, that is, what he is worth to his employer."[124]

"Regular beginning wages" are paid cooperative students of the Rochester, New York, Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute.[125] In the Hastings, Nebraska, High School, cooperative trainees may or may not receive wages:

> Since this is an educational project and the training of the pupil in an occupational environment is its objective, the trainee may or may not receive wages. In most cases a probationary period of two weeks is allowed during which time the pupil is not paid. After that time the pay is based on the type of service the pupil is able to give, the type of work, and the hours of work. Thus the pay varies considerably.[126]

PRINCIPLE: Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.

Two units of credit toward graduation are given to those boys in the Marengo, Illinois, High School, who complete the course in Home

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[122] "Work Experience in Agricultural, Commercial and Trade and Industrial Education," op. cit., p. 56.

[123] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 51.

[124] "Work Experience in Agricultural, Commercial and Trade and Industrial Education," op. cit., p. 55.

[125] Ibid., p. 68.

[126] Ibid., pp. 62-3.

Construction. This class undertakes the building of a complete house each year:

> Upon the completion of a year's work in this course, a boy has practical and functional knowledge and skill in carpentry with a beginning in allied trades. When a boy takes the course for three years, as some do, he is skilled enough to find immediate employment in his chosen field of work.[127]

The Pheonix, Arizona, Senior High School[128] and the Joplin, Missouri, Senior High School[129] also offer two school credits for work experience in trade and industrial programs. In the John Bartram High School in Philadelphia, "boys enrolled in the industrial curriculum are excused from school shop attendance and are given school credit for outside shop experience."[130]

PRINCIPLE: School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.

The Frank Wiggins Trade School of Los Angeles requires that carefully prepared reports of work experiences be made by the student. It uses suitable forms which clearly indicate what these reports should contain.[131] Another indication that records are kept and reports made is found in the Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, which states that "not over ten per cent of the coordinator's time is taken up with the keeping of office records and reports or other administrative duties."[132]

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[127] Ibid., p. 57.

[128] Ibid., p. 54.

[129] Ibid., p. 6.

[130] "Out-of-School Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 105.

[131] Johnson, op. cit., p. 180.

[132] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 59.

PRINCIPLE: Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer, and to the state office should be required.

> The best prevailing standards of industry must be the minimum standards of industrial education. Now, then, America already has too many shysters, quacks, and jacklegs who are generally the result of indiscriminate admittance and slipshod and limited attempts at training. Because of the continually advancing standards of precision in workmanship and the detailed technologies necessary to secure it, such are increasingly thrown on the economic scrap heap, useless to themselves, a drag on society, and a menace to democracy. And because of these same advancing standards, the occupational training carried on by the schools should not only equal the best prevailing standards of practice, but should stimulate the imagination of the pupil to improve upon the best. Otherwise the schools at public expense run the risk of turning out more jacklegs further to glut the labor market and further to intensify what ails us now.[133]

PRINCIPLE: The best current practices and highest occupational standards should be the basis for instruction and training.

> The time at work must equal or exceed in point of time, the time in clock hours devoted to school instruction throughout the year. A student who spends more time in school during the school year than he spends actually at work under regular employment conditions cannot be considered a part-time cooperative student.[134]

PRINCIPLE: Time spent in employment should equal the total time spent in school.

Coordination

Trade and industrial education soon discovered that the most successful method of "getting the job done," according to Prosser and Allen, was by a cooperating combination of the school and industry, rather than through the school alone.[135] Often trade and industrial leaders claim that most of the educational schemes in which employers

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[133]Thomas H. Quigley, "Industrial Education--Skilled, Semiskilled and Unskilled," in the Forty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1934), pp. 243-4.

[134]Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 49.

[135]Prosser and Allen, op. cit., p. 382.

play a part have first been worked out in the trade and industrial field.[136]

> The movement, in so far as industry itself is concerned at least, is away from cold storage toward pusher education; from instruction only at formal and stated periods to continuous help whenever the need for it exists and the opportunity to take it arises; from long courses to short unit courses; from general technical knowledge to functioning information; from the departmental organization of teaching material to the use of the job as the core and subject of instruction; from the technically prepared teacher to the occupationally competent instructor; from theoretical ability to doing ability; and finally, we believe, from the isolated school plant toward the cooperative plant and school.[137]

> . . .the vocational school must be the coordinator of the community in getting all parties-at-direct-interest to bring their potential vocational-education facilities and faculties to bear upon the total adjustment of the citizens for occupational proficiency. No school, even if it could command all the educational tax money that ever has or ever will be spent, can any more perform the rightful vocational function of the employer in the place of employment, of the labor union, of the employment office, of the social service agency, or of the parent in the home, than these can perform the function of the school.[138]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

"The trend is so definitely toward a more extended use of such committees together with a much better understanding of what advisory committees are for,"[139] that industry has been forced to fully recognize collective bargaining and the demands which it stands for. Adequate training and placement by the school is a task which is too difficult to undertake without advice and help from an "organized, responsible and representative group from industry cooperating with the school"[140] who will assume their share of the responsibility of training.

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[136] Ibid.
[137] Ibid., p. 405.
[138] Quigley, op. cit., p. 243.
[139] Johnson, op. cit., p. 194.
[140] Ibid.

Voorhees states that advisory boards "have rendered excellent service and do even more to promote effective cooperative education"[141] in the trade and industrial field. In the State of New York, according to Norton, various agencies are consulted, such as labor organizations, specific trade committees, employers' groups, and trade associations.[142] He continues by stating:

> Where advisory boards were active, the vocational industrial school appeared to be functioning in a desirable manner. New York City has a very active board with subcommittees on some trades organized under the board to assist the general board and certain schools.[143]

Quigley believes that the United States Commissioner of Education has been largely responsible for the tremendous growth of advisory committees throughout the country.

> As influences to keep vocational education responsive to the people's needs, advisory committees vary from mere shams and polite gestures to indispensably constructive forces, depending upon the respect in which the committee members are held by their constituents and upon the sincerity of the school administration in seeking advice, its capacity for taking advice, and its leadership in winning the respect of the advisory committee. Quite generally it may fairly be said that the industrial-education systems have learned or are learning through long experience--indeed through organized training also--the indispensable techniques of working under such controls to adjust themselves to needed change.[144]

PRINCIPLE: Effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

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[141]Stephen F. Voorhees, "Community Relationships in Vocational Education," in the Forty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 81.

[142]Norton, op. cit., p. 76.

[143]Ibid., p. 80.

[144]Advisory Committee on Education, Report of the Committee, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 79.

No cooperative plan can function effectively without proper coordination between the four constituents (school, employer, home and youth) involved in such a relationship.

> The conception of coordination ranges from that of the function of the truant officer to that of the wise counselor and guide who, because of his superior ability and training, becomes the real teacher and the most important link in the educational process.[145]

Again the Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education has been consulted as to the provisions for coordinators which federal funds make possible. It sets up the following requirements:

> Federal funds appropriated for the reimbursement of salaries of trade and industrial teachers may be used for the reimbursement of the salaries of coordinators for all-day, part-time,. . .trade and industrial classes, provided that plans for each type of coordination are stipulated in the State plan. The provisions set forth in the State plan should include: (1) the plan for each type of coordination, and (2) duties and qualifications of the coordinator.
>
> State authorities will, in making reimbursement for the salaries of coordinators, ascertain that: (1) not over ten per cent of the coordinator's time is taken up with the keeping of office records and reports and other administrative duties. Reimbursement for services as a coordinator cannot be made for time spent in the discharge of the duties of a director, a principal, or a supervisor; and (2) the school responds to the work of the coordinator by making use of the information which he brings in, by arranging the school program in accordance with his suggestions, and by outlining or changing the instructional content to suit changing conditions uncovered by the coordinator. It is the opinion of the Office of Education that if an individual is to carry on the work of coordination successfully he must have some voice in the direction of the school work of the pupils, in order that the instruction they receive may be actually coordinated with the employment in which they are engaged.[146]

Quigley emphatically believes that every coordinator should be thoroughly experienced in the occupation he teaches.

> Unless the industrial schools employ as teachers of such occupations people who have been outstandingly successful in the occupations

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145Johnson, op. cit., p. 184.

146Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 59.

> into which the schools are to induct trainees, or in which the schools are to adjust trainees better, the trainees will be handicapped in skill and attitude, for they would attempt to enter occupations below even the prevailing standards of such occupations.[147]

PRINCIPLE: Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training, should be required of all cooperative teacher-coordinators.

"Difficulties in connection with labor problems appear to be confined to the trade and industrial program."[148] This situation has been created by the misinterpretation of the purposes of vocational cooperative trade and industrial training. Often the school, in an effort to increase its enrollment, pays too little heed to the actual market demand for labor of specific types. It too often has performed its function of training with insufficient cooperation and understanding with industrial and labor leaders.[149]

> There is a need for a remarkably increased amount of cooperation between the authorities responsible for vocational education, the Department of Labor of the various States, and the U. S. Department of Labor.[150]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative programs should provide for cooperation and understanding with labor unions.

Closely allied to the foregoing principle is the problem of exploiting youth. The federal law states that a minimum age of 14 is required[151] of all students employed while attending school, and that such employment should be remunerative, at least to the minimum salary of beginning workers in that industry. Unpaid work should be discouraged unless performed for a non-profit social agency, and even then should not displace a regular worker and should be for training purposes solely.

The Advisory Committee on Education (1938) recommends that this

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147 Quigley, op. cit., p. 243.
148 Report of the Committee, op. cit., p. 79.
149 Ibid.
150 Ibid.
151 Smith-Hughes Act, 39 Stat. L929-36, section 11.

present minimum age limit be retained and that a "special minimum age of 17 be established for instruction designed to prepare for a specific trade or industrial occupation.[152]

PRINCIPLE: All practices in relation to work experience should be closely scrutinized for any indication of the exploitation of youth.

SUMMARY

James E. Russell in 1909 foresaw the basic idea underlying all cooperative work experience in vocational education and expressed it in the following words:

> My thought is that any subject worthy of a place in the school curriculum should be developed along systematic lines characteristic of the subject itself by means which function in the child's experience with other subjects of information. This is only another way of saying that whatever is learned should be applied in practice.[153]

The forces which have gone into the development of cooperative practices in agricultural, home economics and trade and industrial education are similar in so far as the policies prerequisite to federal reimbursement are concerned, and often quite dissimilar in their specific application, due to the variegated nature of the fields themselves and to the individuals who organize and administer these programs.

Other than the nineteen principles listed at the beginning of this chapter, all three of the fields of agriculture, home economics and trade and industrial education apply the cooperative principles here listed in typical practice:

1. Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

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[152]Report of the Committee, op. cit., p. 95.

[153]James E. Russell, "The School and Industrial Life," in James E. Russell and Frederick G. Bonser, Industrial Education, (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1914), p. 16.

2. Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupation.

3. Sufficient skill and understanding should be obtained to enable the student to perform efficiently on the job.

4. For successful training, the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

5. Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

6. Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer, and to the state office should be required.

7. Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training, should be required of cooperative teacher-coordinators.

Those principles which are applicable to agricultural and home economics cooperative practices, but not to the trade and industrial field are as follows:

1. Cooperative work experience should be organized in the form of projects.

2. Cooperative students should be compensated by increased ability and understanding, although money is often desirable.

3. Credit for cooperative work experience should be included as part of the vocational course.

The principle which applies to agricultural and trade and industrial cooperative education, but not to home economics education, is that effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

Home economics and trade and industrial cooperative education have the following principle in common: Cooperative work experience should perform the functions of guidance, placement and follow-up for its trainees.

Agriculture alone practices the following principles:

1. Cooperative work experience should be supervised at least six months of the year with at least one project completed per year.

2. Cooperative class schedules should be comprehensive in that they cover two or more years of secondary schooling.

3. Cooperative classes should be scheduled for double periods throughout the curriculum.

Only the field of home economics practices these principles:

1. Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.

2. The number of students who might be cooperatively trained should be without limit.

3. Cooperative work experience should be offered on the grade level best suited to the needs of the student.

4. Cooperative work experience should be of sufficient educational value to enable acquisition of mastery of skills and understandings needed for that job.

Principles applicable only to the field of trade and industrial cooperative education are:

1. Homogeneous grouping should prevail in cooperative work experience.

2. Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.

3. School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.

4. Time spent in employment should equal the total time spent in school.

5. The best current practices and highest occupational standards should be the basis for instruction and training.

6. Cooperative programs should provide for cooperation and understanding with labor unions.

7. All practices in relation to work experience should be closely scrutinized for any indication of the exploitation of youth.

CHAPTER V

COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE IN DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION

Prior to 1917 and the advent of nation-wide programs of vocational education in the trades and industrial, home economics, and agricultural fields,

> business education was largely engaged in proving its equality with academic education as a producer of disciplinary values and culture. Sadly enough, business education had itself become largely academic and a number of business subjects were entirely neglected. One of these subjects was selling.[1]

The George-Deen Act, which became a federal law in June, 1936, tended to direct much attention to a field of vocational education hitherto ignored, i.e., the distributive occupations. This action was due directly to a quantity of research which revealed that there was a tremendous need of and pressure for training for employment in retail stores and other distributive occupations. Statistics show that approximately one out of every 15 gainfully employed persons in the nation--almost 2,800,000--are employed in distributive occupations.[2] Surveys and follow-up studies have shown that more than 280,000 youths between the ages of 18 and 24 enter employment in the distributive field each year.[3] Besides these, there are thousands of older persons who, untrained, transfer to it from other fields.[4] The George-Deen Act has provided the incentive to train these workers and prospective workers through the provision of funds.

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[1]U. S. Office of Education Preliminary Report of the Distributive Education Conference, June 23-4, 1938, Misc. 2124, Commercial Education Service, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 1.

[2]As compiled from the Sixteenth Census of the United States, 1940, Population, Third Series, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942).

[3]Kenneth B. Haas Distributive Education, (New York: Gregg, 1941), p. 5.

[4]Ibid., pp. 5-6.

Most of the present cooperative programs are under the jurisdiction of the George-Deen Act, and they are called distributive education programs because they deal with all distributive occupations, instead of retailing alone. As far as cooperative education is concerned, practices need not be federally reimbursable to be effective. Indeed, many cooperative retailing programs were in effect prior to the George-Deen legislation.[5]

Cooperative education is an integral part of distributive education today. In order to receive federal aid under the George-Deen Act, an equal division of time between study and practice is required. "This is no accident. It is the result of experience."[6] Cooperative distributive education is truly vocational training because it trains for a specific occupation, combines "on-the-job" experiences with school skills and knowledges, and is taught by an occupationally experienced teacher.

Following the leadership of other fields of vocational education, distributive education does not discount general education, but requires it as background. It requires a year or two (out of 12) to prepare selected persons for the occupations they expect to enter. It assumes that its trainees will not continue with formal schooling and will use this training as a means of earning a livelihood. Thus, it is generally terminal in nature.

The cooperative practice started by Mrs. Prince in post-high school retailing pre-dated the common cooperative plans of today, but was not

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[5]Glenn Oscar Emick Cooperative Training in Retail Selling in Public Secondary Schools, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 186, Commercial Series No. 10, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937).

[6]F. G. Nichols "Methods of Teaching Business Education--Clerical and Distributive," in the Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 117.

not widely followed in secondary schools until after the passage of the George-Deen Act. Today there are thousands of students in the States and Territories partaking of this opportunity to become more efficient distributive workers. As interpreted by the U. S. Office of Education, cooperative students must be enrolled in certain technical and related courses which are correlated with organized practical experience in a distributive business. Such a student must spend at least 15 hours a week on the job;[7] and working conditions, hours in school and at work "must conform to the State laws governing such conditions."[8] It should be emphasized that the cooperative program is primarily conducted for the welfare of the individual--not for the school, the store or any other agency.

Along with other areas of vocational education, distributive education adhers to the general principles of cooperative as stated in Chapter IV.

Student Relationships

Prior to establishment of a cooperative program in any community the need and feasibility of such a plan should be determined. A community survey enables the coordinator to learn the types of stores in the community and the kinds of jobs available; to classify stores and determine training possibilities; to promote the program and to

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[7]U. S. Office of Education Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 1, General Series No. 1, (revised; Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937), p. 51.

[8]Ibid.

establish contacts for future promotion; to determine what training is being given and to find out employer and employee attitudes toward distributive education; to discover how many people are employed and what the rate of turnover is in each organization; to investigate the age of permanent employees and the average number of years they have been working; to determine whether the agency is willing to pay the minimum wage, if working conditions are adequate, and the number of part-time students the organization will take.[9]

Haas states that "job analysis should be the basis for all instruction if we hope to train the individual to 'do better those desirable activities that he will do anyway.'"[10] The requirements, duties, skills, attitudes, appreciations, knowledges and occupational intelligence factors on the job performed by the trainee is fundamental to successful classroom instruction in cooperative courses. The actual needs of the students will then become the basis for a functional course of study. Haas believes that idealism and theory should be of secondary consideration in the instructional preparation of a cooperative class.[11]

> That every coordinator of cooperative distributive training courses should be well-grounded in job analysis goes without saying. But how to train the coordinator in the fundamentals of good job analysis practices is something not so easy to outline. We have (in Michigan) through repeated emphasis on, and discussion of, the making of job studies, a simple functional pattern of the duties common to many retail establishments can be amplified in specific trades to cover most duties assumed by any trainee regardless of his retail employment. Furthermore, we have learned through study of the job requirements of various types of retailing that the coordinators become better able to talk intelligently to employers in many lines of retailing, few of which they necessarily are intimately acquainted. . .

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[9]Kenneth B. Haas Cooperative Part-Time Retail Training Programs, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 205, Business Education Series No. 12, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939), pp. 20-1.

[10]Kenneth B. Haas "Job Training in War Times," Business Education World, XXIII, (January, 1943), p. 283.

[11]Ibid.

> We believe that a large share of the success or failure of an individual trainee's program, as well as the coordination follow-up during the training period, is traceable to the careful painstaking preparation of an accurate analysis of the job and a concurrent determination of an adequate instructional program.[12]

Certainly a program must be believed in, before it can be adhered to. There are many factors which influence the effect such a training program has upon the community. Distributive education should make provision for

> newer courses designed to cope with current problems arising in distributive practices through changing business conditions, while at the same time the balance of offerings of solid, far-sighted training courses which are always a necessity in vocational training, has not been disturbed.[13]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

In so far as this study is concerned recruiting and promoting infer a like meaning; the former with respect to enlisting interest in prospective and participating students; while the latter deals with the school, the merchants, the parents, the sales personnel, the various civic groups and the general public in the community.

More than half of the cooperative retail practices surveyed by Emick reported that recruiting efforts to secure students were followed. The most frequently mentioned were

Booklets published by the school.	.6 times
Publicity through the high school paper	.4 "
Interviews with students	.3 "
Talks to graduating class	.3 "
Special assemblies	.2 "
Publicity through the P. T. A.	.2 " [14]

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[12]Lawrence T. Thomson "Training Coordinators for Coordination," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 49.

[13]Ira W. Kibby, Hughes M. Blowers, Willis M. Kenealy, William R. Blackler "Distributive Education in California," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 11.

[14]Emick, op. cit., p. 123.

This is not an exhaustive list of the various methods which may be used in recruiting trainees and promoting the program in the community.

A successful practice of today is:

> The Buffalo Plan for efficient employment of applicants for the part-time retailing courses which places major emphasis upon certain promotional devices. For breadth of selection, the following publicity was used: three stories, run in the afternoon paper, spaced at weekly intervals, gave original impetus to the program; following this, a spread in the Sunday paper added to the publicity and attracted some who were unemployed, yet not reached by the initial appeals. Finally, in recognition of the fact that Buffalo has a large Polish population, and that some of the cooperating merchants were located in distinctly Polish sections, a story was also printed in the local Polish daily. Radio programs also played a part in spreading the course information. Descriptive pamphlets were placed in the hands of job counselors of the N. Y. A., Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A. and individual cooperating stores.[15]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work programs should use various methods of recruiting and promoting according to the local situation.

Other means of selecting students for cooperative classes are by various methods of evaluation.

The application blank covers most of the information about the student. Besides the facts, several good questions often reveal a "lead" for the interview. The application blank is usually filled out before the interview and is a definite aid to the coordinator in talking with the student.

Interviews naturally take up a lot of time, but there is no better way of getting an insight into the student's wants, desires, and problems. Most coordinators seem to base their final decision of their personal knowledge and judgment of a student either through this medium or other contact.

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[15] Stanley Russell Smith "The Placement Problem in Cooperative Retailing Programs," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 55.

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[15] Stanley Russell Smith "The Placement Problem in Cooperative Retailing Programs," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 55.

Emick's survey shows that only 8 out of 31 administrators questioned use intelligence tests in determining the student's fitness for admission to cooperative training.[16] One State Supervisor of Distributive Education relates his experiences:

> So far as tests are concerned for selection of applicants wishing to enroll in the cooperative course, our experience generally is that, while they show aptitude and interest, so many other factors have to be taken into consideration that no one test of the several used is as yet conclusive.[17]

Aptitude and vocational inventory tests, if well designed, can be of great help not only in selecting students, but in advising them. Often enlightening details are brought out in this manner. Care must be taken in evaluating and interpreting tests as the students are not yet mature and as a rule will have very little actual experience in what they think they would like to do.

The estimate of the student by his teachers is one of the best evaluations obtainable. This rating should be supplemented by discussion with other teachers on borderline cases.

Rating by former employers can be of great service to the coordinator, but it is very seldom that students who still have two years of high school have had much employment. If the student has been employed, his employer should, by all means, be contacted.

The value of becoming acquainted with the school records (scholarship, attendance, subject background, etc.) of the applicant is self explanatory. Special interests and aptitudes can sometimes be immediately discerned.

The student's parents should certainly be contacted and their approval and cooperation requested. The estimate and judgment of friends, associates, ministers, is often valuable, but not necessary

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[17]Thomson, op. cit., p. 46

in the majority of cases.

The advisory board should be asked to help in the selection of the students and just how much they do is a matter of local nature. Their interest and work will be reflected in the quality of the students selected and trained. Counsel and approval of the principal and superintendent is, of course, necessary. They, in many cases, have a better knowledge of the student's capabilities than any one teacher.

All of these methods of evaluation are not necessary for each student, but the more complete the information, the easier the decision. Estimates by all of these methods still have to be tempered with judgment. Care should be taken, however, that as thorough and complete an investigation of each case is made as time and conditions permit. By so doing, not only is selection made easier, but training and placing will be better accomplished.

PRINCIPLE: The selection of cooperative students should be based upon objective as well as subjective means of evaluation.

The problem of which students are to be admitted to a distributive education cooperative course resolves itself around the fundamental purpose of such a course, i.e., a realistic preparation for work which they will probably do. Although at least average intelligence and social understanding are highly desirable, the lower strata will probably not continue in college, and so, other qualifications being equal, a student from this category should be allowed to enter this course, if he if "capable of fulfilling satisfactorily the duties of some distributive occupation.

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[18]Albert C. Mossin "Problems in Conducting a Cooperative Training Program," Journal of Retailing, XIX, (April, 1943), p. 57.

Although the federal policy places the minimum age limit at 14,[19] the more recent Advisory Committee on Education recommended that it be raised.[20] State Plans make specific provision that the minimum entrance age to part-time cooperative courses must be at least 16, except where hazards of the occupation have caused higher age limits.[21]

The Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education bulletin has set up other relevant requirements for pupils in reimbursed programs:

1. The pupils should be employed in a distributive occupation or in other work involving contact with consumers.
2. The time given to instruction of part-time pupils shall not exceed each day, week or other unit of time, the number of hours that the pupil is employed during the same unit of time.[22]

Other qualifications for enrollment in distributive education courses are: first, that the student possess the personal and occupational characteristics necessary in the occupation he is to enter; and secondly, that the student is "able to profit by the instruction."[23]

> Regardless of the kind of store service and selling activities required, the physical qualities required of store workers generally center about physical size, appearance and apparent maturity.[24]

Many State Plans state that the student must be in his last or next to last year of high school, depending upon whether the cooperative class is one or two years in length. Because only those youths who approximate adult size and are at least average in other respects are likely candidates for retail selling, physical qualifications often are self eliminating.

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[19] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 67.

[20] Report of the Committee, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 95.

[21] Lester K. Ade The Administration and Organization of the Distributive Education Program Bulletin No. 270, (Harrisburg: Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, 1939), p. 10.

[22] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 67.

[23] Charles A. Prosser and Charles R. Allen Vocational Education in a Democray, (New York: Century, 1925), p. 211.

[24] Haas, Distributive Education, op. cit., p. 80.

It is taken for granted that cleanliness, neatness, posture, complexion and generally pleasing appearance are necessary.

> General intelligence, which is revealed in countenance, speech, address, manner, or indicated by school or working records, is an important factor to consider in employing persons of high school age for store service.[25]

PRINCIPLE: Admission to cooperative work experience should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupation.

Placement practices differ from community to community. Some coordinators require all cooperative students to secure their own jobs. Others furnish the students with a list of available agencies. Some think the responsibility of placement is entirely their own, sending the best qualified to the best jobs--matching the pupils and the job. It seems to be an individual matter and should be practiced according to the local situation.[26]

> While the school assumed no obligation for the placement of students in cooperative positions, a great many jobs result from the efforts of the coordinator.[27]

Another writer states:

> Faulty placements are sometimes made by coordinators, but are subject to rectification through the definite inclusion of a probationary period in the standards as set up in this state (Michigan). Trainees who appeared to fit ideally a particular job may fail to adjust themselves to their job and a transfer becomes necessary. While this apparent trial and error method may appear on the surface as dangerous and perhaps suicidal, it has proved quite satisfactory in actual practice. Surprisingly few transfers have resulted from its use. In fact, a significant outgrowth of its use has been to build up an appreciation in the mind of the cooperating merchant that the schools are not foisting

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[25]Haas, Distributive Education, op. cit., p. 81.

[26]Mossin, op. cit., p. 60.

[27]William E. Haines "Organizing a Part-Time Business Education Program for the Secondary School," in Fourteenth Yearbook, (Eastern Commercial Teacher Association, 1941), p. 282.

undesirable youths on him. It definitely places the responsibility of selection upon the merchant himself, subject to change is the student selected does not 'pan' out within a reasonable time.[28]

PRINCIPLE: The employer should be the final judge in the placement of cooperative students with guidance from the coordinator.

The retail selling class teacher should follow-up his cooperative part-time students. Such activity may include observing the student at work and checking the results of the observations with the store supervisor. Through follow-up the teacher becomes familiar with each student's abilities and with his limitations for store work, his home conditions, and his social contacts. A disturbing situation within the store, home or school life of the student will affect his learning rate.

Because he is both teacher and counselor, the teacher may talk frankly with the student about his store work, about any home or other situations that may be interfering with the successful performance of his store duties, or about his own aptitude for store work. It is possible for the teacher to do this because the student will realize that store work is an integral part of the retail-selling course, that he has the responsibility to the schools as well as to the store, and that the teacher is personally interested in him as an individual and as a store worker. Store supervisors expect the teacher to follow-up students. They prefer to deal directly with the teacher rather than the student because they know that he is interested in the student's personal and vocational growth.[29]

Emick believes that follow-up studies of cooperative graduates are vital to an adequate evaluation of cooperative retail programs. Prior to the George-Deen Act, his survey revealed that a slight majority (20 out of 34) administrators stated their schools followed up the graduates of their cooperative classes.[30]

PRINCIPLE: For purposes of prognostication and future relationships with business, follow-up studies should be made periodically.

Banks relates successful experience in Elizabeth, New Jersey,

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[28]Thomson, op. cit., p. 47.

[29]Haas, Cooperative Part-Time Retail Training Programs, op. cit., p. 70.

[30]Emick, op. cit,, p. 125.

in selecting cooperating stores to train the cooperative students of the high school as follows:

> Determine which stores in the community are able and willing to take an active part in the program as training agencies. Stores interested in the labor of the prospective trainee and not in the objective of providing some definite training for them should not be selected. The stores which can and will consider the program a cooperative training effort, of mutual benefit to both, should be permitted to participate in the program provided:
>
> 1. The store has sound management--one that has maintained a stable business over a period of years.
> 2. The store operates under ethical policies, working toward a keen civic interest, good employee relations and adequate remuneration for all employees.
> 3. The store has community acceptance--a willingness to cooperate with other businessmen and a spirit of fair cometition in the interest of community organization.
> 4. The store has training possibilities as demonstrated by a cohesive personnel, all working for successful store operation.[31]

Usually retail stores are considered the most satisfactory type of training agency, because they are more thoroughly organized.[32] However, other agencies such as service stations, beauty parlors, restaurants, may also be included when student interest demands.

The rural community presents many problems which are quite different from those of the city, according to Marlin T. Kurtz, Wyoming State Supervisor of Distributive Education. Selection of training agencies is frequently facilitated by the eagerness of the small store to cooperate with the high school. He continues:

> However, because of the small number of employees the vacancies in which the trainees may be placed do not so often exist in the individual establishment. A variety of training stations may be

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[31]Murray Banks "New Jersey High Schools Train for Distributive Occupations," Business Education Observer, XV, (May, 1943), p. 8.

[32]Report of the Second Coordinator's Conference for Distributive Education, School of Store Service Education, College of William and Mary, August 30-September 1, 1939, (Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1939), p. 2.

difficult to obtain, too, because of the lack of variety of business establishments in the community. It can readily be seen, also, that under such circumstances, it would be impossible to develop a well-balanced training program each year and therefore this balance should probably be considered over a period of time. In evaluating such a program, it might be well to consider not alone one, but several year's training, which in the ultimate would be as beneficial for that particular community as a well-balanced program on an annual basis in a large city.[33]

PRINCIPLE: Selection of the participating store or other agency should be given consideration and deliberation to enable proper training for the cooperative student.

School Relationships

Distributive curricula, in order to function as a part of the work experience training, must be administered by the school in such a manner that the greatest leeway is attained. Classes must be scheduled at times best adapted to the working hours of the students; activities, both school and extra-curricula, must not interfere with the working schedules.

PRINCIPLE: For successful training, the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

Cooperative class instructional methods must vary in keeping with the ever-changing subject matter being taught. Just as the same methods are not applicable to all groups, the same method will not "apply throughout the training in one class, because the class is composed of workers who have had experience in their occupations."[34] Some of the more effective methods of teacher cooperative classes are discussion, conferences, and demonstrations based on current experiences

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[33]Marlin T. Kurtz "Problems in Adapting a Distributive Education Program to Rural Conditions," Distributive Education Review, (December, 1941), p. 64.

[34]W. Maurice Baker "Success Factors in Distributive Education" Business Education World, XXI, (May, 1941), p. 822.

in store employment.

> The coordinated high school plan is an accumulated composite of those methods of teaching vocational business education which have proved most effective through years of experience, plus selected pattern and methods from other fields of vocational education, each used where it will do the most good. A well organized high school course will show a surprising coordination of these training factors. We (in Michigan) base instruction over the two year course on the job analysis. Of the ten hours a week of in-school instruction during the trainee's first year on the program, one hour a day is usually used for group instruction. The other hour daily is devoted to individualized instruction and coaching. During the second year the trainee spends four hours a week on related subjects usually on an individualized instruction basis which called for still more careful and exacting coordination.[35]

Lawyer believes that personalized teaching is indispensible to the cooperative plan. The valuable information obtained through coordination is frequently personal and therefore can best be taught individually.

> The extent to which instruction should be personalized will depend on the school and the policies of the teacher, the number of problems peculiar to the student's job, the assistance given by the employer, and the students' background of training and experience.[36]

PRINCIPLE: Classroom instruction of cooperative students should be individualized to meet the needs of the student as indicated by his working experience.

As defined by the Office of Education:

> A vocational distributive subject is one involving a discussion or presentation of the specific working practices of a distributive occupation for the purpose of increasing the skill, technical knowledge, occupational information, or judgment of workers engaged in that specific occupation.[37]

On the other hand,

> A related distributive subject is one which is intended to enlarge the vocational knowledge, understanding, morale, or judgment of workers from one or more distributive occupations. Thus subjects

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[35] Thomson, op. cit., p. 52.

[36] Lawyer, op. cit., p. 96.

[37] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 66.

> bearing on the production and preparation of the commodities sold, the consumer demand for such commodities, social contacts for store workers, laws effecting stores and business, et. al. are all examples of related distributive subjects.[38]

PRINCIPLE: Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

Cooperative students are often given credit for store work because it provides "technical training which can be obtained in no other way."[39] Some school administrators believe "that store experience provides more of the stimuli for quickening the student's personal, social and economic growth than does class work."[40] The granting of credit for store work is usually limited to those students who are enrolled in a cooperative course, who work steadily throughout the school year (15 hours per week for 30 weeks is required in reimbursed programs), and who grow professionally and personally throughout the year.[41]

Mrs. Prince, in the early days of cooperative education in retailing, established this practice which has generally been followed since:

> The school must allow credit toward graduation for store work under competent and known supervision. It is manifestly unfair to expect students to devote all their recreation time to outside work and it is practically impossible to secure part-time arrangements with the stores that will not to any extent interfere with school hours. The same credit should be given for store experience as is given for laboratory work.[42]

PRINCIPLE: School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.

In order to prevent labor unions, regular store employees and public opinion from regarding cooperative students as exploited youth, experience has proven that each student should be paid the regular

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[38] Ibid.

[39] Haas, Cooperative Part-Time Retail Training Programs, op. cit., p. 69.

[40] Emick, op. cit., p. 69.

[41] Haas, loc. cit.

[42] Lucinda W. Prince Retail Selling, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 22, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918), p. 21.

wage for beginning workers in that organization.[43]

> Under the State Plan (Pennsylvania) part-time employed workers will receive for their working hours a monetary wage comparable to that paid to other employees.[44]

> The store is glad to pay a certain wage during this student period. This payment is the best evidence with which to refute the possible charge that student labor is being exploited.[45]

> The wage to be paid retail selling students may be set by the state or federal minimum wage laws applying to minors. The coordinator is obligated to see that the students are all paid in accordance with legal provisions.[46]

PRINCIPLE: Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.

In regard to maintenance of laws and rules governing labor and working conditions laid down by local, state and federal governments, it is assumed that all such are followed by cooperative distributive students. "Yes, all," was the answer given to the question of whether Distributive Education students are required to meet all existing labor laws, social security regulations, wage and hour laws, house rules and regulations, etc. in New York City.[47]

PRINCIPLE: All pertinent laws, regulations and acts should be allowed by cooperative students.

Whether it be written or oral there should always be a definite agreement or understanding between the student, the store, the school and the parents as to the responsibility of each. This need not be a binding contract, but rather a means whereby understanding and mutual benefit may arise from the cooperation of each party. It allows each member concerned

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[43]Mossin, op. cit., p. 60.
[44]Ade, op. cit., p. 10.
[45]Prince, loc. cit.
[46]Haas, Cooperative Part-Time Retail Training Programs, op. cit., pp. 51-2.
[47]Brennan, op. cit., p. 5.

to comprehend his duties. Emick found that very few cooperative programs required written agreements, but that in most programs verbal understanding was sufficient.[48]

The North Carolina State Distributive Education Plan for 1943 requires that the following matters be agreed upon in the manner best suited to the local situation:

1. To keep records.
2. To observe students at work.
3. To employ students fifteen hours a week except Saturday.
4. To pay a certain wage.
5. To employ no one full-time without the school's consent.
6. To treat cooperative students exactly as other employees.
7. To rotate cooperative students from department to department.[49]

Such points should make the merchant feel that he has a definite responsibility in the training of the student.

The practice followed in Michigan calls for a four-way written agreement of responsibilities:

> This training plan or statement of training responsibilities is the essential backbone of any well organized program and is a direct application of a principle long established in the trade and industrial apprenticeship program. With the aid of the employer, the coordinator prepares a list of job processes or work units which the trainee is to perform on his job in the store. From this list he dovetails the related training to be obtained on the job and in the cooperative classroom. Salaries with periodic increases are agreed upon and all parties concerned (the employer, the coordinator, the student and his parents) approve the agreement for indicating their understanding of the training plan and their willingness to cooperate in the training program.
>
> Approval of individual agreements locally by advisory committees and final approval through the offices of the State Board of Control for Vocational Education constitutes official enrollment of a trainee on the state-wide cooperative distributive training program. Some criticism. . .that retailers might consider it a legally binding contract. . .has faded into insignificance when out of hundreds of employers cooperating with the program not one refused to sign the training plan agreement form.

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[48] Emick, op. cit., p. 129.

[49] North Carolina State Distributive Education Plan, (1943), Filed in the U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

> Perhaps the outstanding result of our use of the agreement form was that it forced the coordinators to analyze constructively the exact job the trainees had to do and from the job analysis build up a related subject instructional program which would specifically and unalterably meet the requirements of that particular job.[50]

PRINCIPLE: Agreement or understanding between the employer, the school, the student and his parents, should be required in cooperative programs.

Cooperative work reports, as a technique used in the 34 Junior Colleges reporting cooperative work programs in the Eells survey (1941) were mentioned in 19 instances.[51]

> The number of reports required from students varied from one a day to two a semester, with weekly and monthly reports being noted most frequently. In cases in which daily reports were required, students generally indicated on a check list the types of experiences that they had received during the day on the job. When reports were required at less frequent intervals, there was a tendency to require the student to write a report on some phase of the organization in which he was employed.[52]

In New York City, the current practice in report making has the businessman rating the cooperative worker twice a year:

> We send form to him for this purpose. The rating is equated into a mark by the Central Office and forwarded to the school. The coordinator at the school shows the rating to the student and is then made a part of herecomplete record. This is a very provided a check all along the way.[53]

The Michigan State Supervisor states that one of the important functions of both the new and the old coordinator is the making of reports and records on the progress of students.

> Because of definite limitations on their desk work time, steps should be taken to help coordinators organize their work so that hours each month are not consumed in making our state office and local school reports. It would seem that state distributive supervisors should devise a minimum number of report forms and endeavor to cut down the many unnecessary reports. After all,

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[50] Thomson, op. cit., p. 48.

[51] Leo F. Smith "Initiating, Administering and Coordinating Cooperative Work in Junior Colleges," School Review, LI, (April, 1943), p. 216.

[52] Ibid.

[53] Brennan, op. cit., p. 3.

> voluminous reports are no substitution for constructive supervisory visits, provided, of course, the supervisor from the state office is in a position to supervise carefully a cooperative training course and not merely act as a side-line coach ready to snipe and criticize, but offering little in a constructive vein.[54]

PRINCIPLE: Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer, and to the state office should be required.

Reference is made to one of the essential requirements of agreements in the North Carolina State Plan, that of rotating the worker from department to department. Haas states that

> . . .not every position in the same store provides equally desirable working experiences. The student who can learn quickly should not be permitted to hold a job longer than is necessary for him to master it, unless through continuing in it he will acquire a desirable skill or a requisite familiarity with different departments and with important members of the store organization.[55]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.

Under the federal distributive education program, trainees not only should be employed at the time of cooperative training,[56] but classes should contain only students who are employed in similar occupations.

Wherever possible, according to U. S. Office of Education policy, distributive education classes are composed of homogeneous groups.

> In general the most effective vocational instruction will be given in a class composed of workers employed in the same occupation. Hence, in the large cities, and elsewhere when possible, separate classes for the teaching of vocational practices should be organized for each group of distributive workers, such as grocery store employees, dry goods store employees, retail meat shop employees, apparel store employees, and similar separate retail trades. Related subjects which present information equally valuable to workers in several distributive occupations may be taught to composite vocational classes.

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[54] Thomson, op. cit., p. 51.

[55] Haas, Distributive Education, op. cit., p. 92.

[56] Kenneth B. Haas Distributive Education Organization and Administration, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 211, Business Education Series No. 13, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940), p. 38.

> In the small communities classes for composite groups may be reimbursed provided the instruction is organized on an individual basis for the purpose of giving training in the specific vocational practices needs by each worker. Usually such instruction can be effectively given on a project basis including class conferences supplemented by special reading and investigations.[57]

PRINCIPLE: Homogeneous groupings should prevail in cooperative work programs.

The Emick survey reveals that it was the policy of 25 cities with cooperative retailing programs in 1936 to enroll all applicants who could meet the admission requirements; other programs limited its enrollees to those who were able to secure part-time employment.[58]

The policy under the George-Deen Act requires that the student be employed part-time. The Vocational Division Bulletin No. 205 States:

> All students qualified for store work should be placed in part-time cooperative positions; students who are not employable should not be admitted to the training program.[59]

PRINCIPLE: The number of students who may enroll in cooperative classes should be determined by their ability to secure part-time employment.

The working schedule must be adjusted to fit the needs of the local merchant employing the cooperative student. Any one of a number of plans has been used. Instead of arbitrarily advocating one particular plan, the peculiar characteristics of the local community and its retail businesses should be considered in this respect, and should govern the policy adopted.

Several of the plans in common use are:

1. Between 12 noon and 3 o'clock daily.
2. All day or part-time daily in alternate weeks.
3. During the late afternoon hours daily.[60]

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[57] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 69.

[58] Emick, op. cit., p. 124.

[59] Haas, Cooperative Part-Time Retail Training Programs, op. cit., p. 68.

[60] Ibid., p. 53.

PRINCIPLE: The working schedule of cooperative programs should be adjusted to meet the needs of the employer.

In order to adhere to the well-established principle of vocational education that vocational training should be given as near the time of its use as possible, the distributive education program usually offers classes in the eleventh, twelfth, post-graduate or junior college years of secondary schooling. The Emick survey reveals that the last year of high school is by far the most popular for cooperative classes; the eleventh year is the second most widely used; and the post graduate ranks third.[61] Because of the immaturity of high school students, however, the advisability of confining cooperative training only to the high school is questioned by Dr. Ira Kibby, Head of Business Education in California. He fortifies his opinion that there is usually too wide a gap between graduation and employment and that the average student graduated at the age of 17 and 18 is not satisfactorily employed until the age of 21.[62] Hence, cooperative programs should be delayed until the latest possible period in school.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be given as near as possible to the time of permanent job placement.

The Office of Education is definite in stating the number of hours cooperative students must spend in employment. It should be a minimum of 15 hours per week for at least 30 weeks of the school year, and must be equal to or exceed the total time spent in school. "Saturdays may be included in this time, but only if it is during the school year."[63]

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[61] Emick, op. cit., p. 42.

[62] Western Regional Conference in Distributive Education, Berkeley, California, May 8-12, 1939, Business Education Service, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939), p. 6.

[63] Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education, op. cit., p. 49.

> Classes organized for continuous instruction on a cooperative school and employment schedule for employees who can leave their daily employment to attend school not to exceed fifty per cent of the working time.[64]

PRINCIPLE: Time spent in employment should equal or exceed the total time spent in school by cooperative students.

Coordination

In order to be reimbursable from federal funds, cooperative pupils must be trained on the job in a distributive occupation, or "in other work involving contact with consumers,"[65] according to the Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education.

F. G. Nichols believes that work experience in selling is the only way to round out classroom training in salesmanship. By analogy, he states that "an office situation can be simulated in school, but not a sales situation. A sample voucher of a business transaction can be very real; but not a sample 'customer.'"[66] The obvious import of these statements is that classroom retailing is not sufficient until coordination with appropriate work experience on the job is accomplished.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

To be of value, an advisory committee must have work to do. It should act as a steering wheel in guiding the cooperative program. As the name implies, this committee has only a counselling function; authority for any action rests in the coordinator and the school administrators.

Meetings are usually held at the beginning of each school year and whenever the need arises thereafter. Although practices differ in each

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[64] Ibid., p. 69.

[65] Ibid., p. 67.

[66] F. G. Nichols "Methods of Teaching in Business Education--Clerical and Distributive," in Forty-Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1943), p. 117.

locality, it is believed to be typical to have between 7 to 12 members on this committee, composed of several key merchants, a member of the School Board (preferably the Superintendent), a representative of the press, a representative of labor, representatives of retail employees, a vocational guidance director and, of course, the coordinator. Usually employers and employees are equally represented and one impartial member balances the power.[67]

Duties of an advisory committee might include the approval of training agencies, determination of general policies, establishment of comparable wage schedules, approval of training agreements, aid in publicity and promotion of the program, arbitration of disputes, development of functional instructional material and selection of qualified teachers.[68]

PRINCIPLE: Effective cooperative work experience programs require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

It follows that the most important factor in coordination is the person doing the coordinating. The primary qualification of a well-trained teacher-coordinator is sufficient occupational experience in an actual job. Prosser and Allen say he should be a "practitioner, not merely a theorist."[69] Haas states that this experience "should have been recent and should have included a variation of store positions."[70]

A Texas Conference of Distributive Education Coordinators listed the following as characteristics of a good coordinator.

1. Above reproach in his reputation.
2. Careful of his appearance.
3. Courteous to others.

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[67]Pope, op. cit., p. 17

[68]Haas, Distributive Education Organization and Administration, op. cit., p. 15.

[69]Prosser and Allen, op. cit., p. 211.

4. Friendly.
5. Business like.
6. Able to deal with people.
7. Thoroughly familiar with his job and his responsibilities.
8. Fair in his decisions.
9. A good instructor.
10. Trained and experienced in the field he is teaching--more a specialist than a 'jack-of-all-trades.'[71]

A college education is preferable because it places the coordinator on an equivalent level with other teachers and insures essential background education. The Vocational Bulletin No. 211 states that a cooperative teacher should have 24 college hours each of technical and professional courses. Also, "at least 3 years of experience in the distributive occupation or occupations would appear to be necessary; at least one year should have been a supervisory or executive position," besides, "two years of successful experience as a teacher in school or in business itself."[72]

> Most other fields insist that the instructor have adequate occupational experience himself with which to supplement his job analyses. Distributive Education goes still further, insists not only that the teacher study under competent instructors, that he teach on a job analysis basis, and that he have applicable trade experience, but also believes it advisable for him to assume timeliness through coordination and through this timeliness, insure accuracy and efficiency in training both the group and the individual.[73]

PRINCIPLE: Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training, should be required of cooperative teacher-coordinators.

SUMMARY

The vocational field of distributive education has, during the six years of its federal assistance, made great strides in cooperative

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[71]Pope, op. cit., pp. 29-30.

[72]Haas Distributive Education Organization and Administration, op. cit., p. 49.

[73]Thomson, op. cit., p. 71.

development. It has combined in one open-minded area all the proven principles and methods of business and vocational education. In its present form, it is rich in background--the result of years of experience in other fields of education.

From association with trade and industrial education particularly, cooperative practices in distributive education have adopted the principles of using the job analysis approach, the occupationally experienced teacher, and the part-time employed student whose "job" is coordinated with related classroom subject matter. Coordination permits close contact between the school and retailers of the community and allows all parties--school, employers, students, parents, consumers, and public alike to better understand each other and themselves.

Several definite policies have been interpreted by the federal governing board, such as minimum age limits, employment qualifications. homogeneous classes, and the broad principle that the student must profit by the instruction. Utilizing these myriad principles, cooperative work experience has come to be an integral part of distributive education.

Understanding, appreciation and active use of these principles if fundamental to the efficiency of all concerned with cooperative distributive education.

CHAPTER VI

PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE IN CLERICAL EDUCATION

It has often been said that one of the chief drawbacks to secondary clerical education is that much of it is theoretical rather than practical. Tonne states that "the solution of the problem of how to combine theoretical and practical education seems to depend upon some form of cooperation between schools and industry."[1]

In clerical education, as has been pointed out in other phases of vocational education, the chain of education from the kindergarten to employment has its weakest link between the secondary school and the job. Students are too often trained and then left, unguided, to their own resources. The product of much fine teaching has been weakened by the failure of the school to complete its job by following its youth into the occupational world.[2] "One side of the coin has been polished to a high lustre, while the other side of the coin has been allowed to become drab."[3] To alleviate this condition, cooperative work experience has been employed in some places with much success. Indeed, in recent years, most educators concede that cooperative work experience is the solution to the important problem of "bridging the gap" and thus one of the greatest problems facing clerical education today is not what shall be done, but how it shall be done; that is, integration of work experience with classroom instruction. New York State has just announced (1943) that credit will be given for the work

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[1]Herbert A. Tonne Business Education: Principles and Trends, (New York: Gregg, 1939), p. 294.

[2]William E. Haines "Work Experience and Business Education," The Balance Sheet, XXIV, (February, 1943), p. 258.

[3]Ibid.

experience of office worker students. This program is under federal (trade and industrial) auspices.[4]

William E. Haines believes that clerical education classes in the past have been taught with too little attention given needs of the employer.[5] The teacher presumed to know, and so set up arbitrary standards, such as typing straight copy at 60 words per minute or dictating evenly at 100 words per minute. These standards have but little meaning to the employer because he will not ordinarily want the same situation duplicated. Simulating office conditions in the classroom is better than nothing, but it is not as beneficial as an actual working-for-pay experience might be. Such conditions lack reality and are "at best a makeshift and cannot compete in effectiveness with opportunities which real offices and problems present."[6] Industrial education, when faced with a similar problem, chose the wise and economical solution of using the factory as a "laboratory" of practice and experience. A quarter of a century ago, Thompson stated that "the way out for clerical education is along a similar path, and the business house should furnish the opportunity needed."[7]

Most employers recognize their responsibility of sharing in the process of vocational training.[8] If they were made more cognizant of this need, they would be willing to cooperate in a plan of beginning this responsibility while the student is still under the jurisdiction and supervision of the school. They would then have a group of "pre-experienced" workers to

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[4]New York Bureau of Business Education Announcing Regents Credit and Federal Aid for Work Experience Courses in Business Education, Division of Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 41, (Albany: New York State Department of Education, February, 1943), p. 3.

[5]Haines, op. cit., p. 259.

[6]F. V. Thompson Commercial Education in the Public Secondary School, (New York: World Book, 1916), p. 78.

[7]Ibid.

[8]Haines, op. cit.

choose from. The school, likewise, would find integrated work experience a splendid means of appraising and evaluating its offerings. The undeniable advantages of remedial teaching becomes feasible and practical under such a plan.

Although one of the first vocational areas to be introduced into public secondary schools, and numerically the largest, clerical education has not, it is frequently assumed, as yet reached its maturity because of the inability of its leaders to draw a clear line of distinction between the vocational, pre-vocational and non-vocational objectives and purposes of the courses it offers and the methods it uses.

> Business education has meant all things to all people. The curriculum should be so designed as to prepare vocationally only those students who have the ability to meet occupational standards. Industrial education has long since drawn a line of demarcation between trade and industrial education and industrial arts. Business education must draw the same distinction between vocational preparation and that type of training and information intended for personal use.[9]

RELATIONSHIP OF CLERICAL EDUCATION TO THE FEDERAL PROGRAM OF SUBSIDIZING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

It should be remembered that clerical education in this study refers to all vocational business education, exclusive of those subjects specifically designated as being distributive education.

Clerical education is the only major field of vocational education which is directly unaided by governmental monies. At the time of the passage of the basic federal bill in 1917, this phase of business education was "adequately cared for by the highschools of the country," (and it should be added by private business schools) according to Forkner, who continues:

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[9] Ibid.

> . . .and it was not considered necessary to subsidize, by federal grants, additional education in this field, for most of the young people who completed high school courses in business education were quickly absorbed into office and store positions or in jobs which lead to office and store positions.[10]

On this point, Nichols states:

> Business subjects were not included in the original plan for subsidizing vocational education, because they were already overstimulated and were being offered throughout the country.[11]

Forkner continues on the trend at the present time.

> But with the economic upheaval of the past decade these young people have ceased to be absorbed into jobs, with the result that skills and knowledges they gained in high school are quickly lost through disuse. And so, today, (1940), we have large numbers of youths from 17 years of age and up who are out of school and out of work because the local communities have failed to provide educational opportunities beyond the period of high school education.[12]

This situation has reversed itself today (1943) when, due to the war crisis, there are more jobs than there are qualified applicants.

As far as can be determined, the first cooperative plan in clerical education, as in trade and industrial, was initiated on the collegiate level when, in 1919, the College of Commerce of the University of Cincinnati merged with the College of Engineering, and thereafter the principles of cooperative work experience have been applied to the College of Commerce.[13]

That same year (1919) the Federal Board for Vocational Education advised business departments in the public secondary schools of America to apply the idea of cooperative part-time work to their curricula, as such methods would prove beneficial to business training. They gave detailed suggestions as to the organization and administration of such

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[10] Hamden L. Forkner "Federal Aid for Vocational Business Training," Education, LX, (January, 1940), p. 277.

[11] F. G. Nichols "History and Philosophy of Distributive Education," Preliminary Report of the Distributive Education Conference, June 23-4, 1938, Misc. 2124, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 12.

[12] Forkner, loc. cit.

[13] Robert C. Gowdy College of Engineering and Commerce, (Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati, 1942-3), p. 9.

programs, and have since been in favor of cooperative work experience as a means of fostering the ideals of vocational business education.[14]

These recommendations have by no means been accepted or put into practice generally. However, within recent years the trade and industrial program of Diversified Occupations has included clerical workers. Due to some dissension created by the cooperative part-time plan in clerical education, several studies and surveys were made prior to 1928 which gave luke-warm evidence that cooperative students made as satisfactory, if not more satisfactory, adjustment to their occupation as did those students not participating in this plan.[15]

Student Relationships

Cooperative practices enable the school to maintain a closer relationship with the business community, whereas normally such contact is meager. Through this plan businessmen should gain a new or revived interest in education.[16]

One of the important methods of attaining this goal of mutual understanding between business and clerical education is by conducting a community or job opportunity survey.

> Considerable emphasis has been given to community surveys as a means of determining local needs and opportunities. In many instances there is little evidence of the need for further local surveys to determine occupational opportunities for beginning business workers

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[14]Federal Board for Vocational Education Commercial Education: Organization and Administration, Bulletin No. 34, Commercial Series No. 3, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919), pp. 23-33.

[15]Federal Board for Vocational Education Cooperative Part-Time Education, Bulletin No. 130, (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928), p. 20.

[16]Margaret A. Pendy "Cooperative Office Practice," Journal of Business Education, XVI, (March, 1941), p. 27.

> or to discover the kind of training needed by these workers; but there is need for continued local surveys to determine the kind of basic business education needed to fit students to live in that particular community.[17]

In the La Grande, Oregon, High School, an occupational survey was made by the senior business class the year before the cooperative program was inaugurated to determine the opinions of businessmen regarding their qualifications for employees. As in many other areas, this survey revealed that high school graduates usually had technical training, but lacked other essential qualities. On this basis a cooperative program was evolved.[18] A knowledge of what the business man wants and what he expects of his employees directly aids the clerical department in preparing for future instructional methods and information.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community by surveys and studies of current conditions.

After the need is determined, the next step is to select those pupils who will most efficiently fulfill this need—those who want experience, who have mastered the basic skills sufficiently to perform office work and those who can meet the special requirements provided by the local program. Nichols believes the abilities, interests and aptitudes of students for such training should be thoroughly investigated before they are allowed to partake in a cooperative work experience program. Unless undesirable social waste is to be incurred, students who do not and can not meet business employment standards should not be admitted.[19] Several policies for the admission of students to cooperative clerical programs are here cited:

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[17] National Business Teachers Association The Principles of Business Education, McKee Fisk, editor, Eighth Yearbook, (The Association, 1942), pp. 134-5.

[18] "Provision for Training in Office Practice on the Job," School Review, XXXXVIII, (June, 1940), p. 408.

[19] F. G. Nichols Commercial Education in the High School, (New York: D. Appleton-Century, 1933), p. 66.

In the North High School of Des Moines, Iowa,

> a student in order to be eligible for membership, must be 16, following the regular stenographic curriculum, maintaining better than average grades; he must file an application; his enrollment must be approved by his parents, by the chairman of the Stenographic Department, and by the teacher-coordinator. His school program is planned so that he may be in school half days and available for work in an office half days.[20]

The Brewer, Maine, High School cooperative clerical student

> selections were based on the results of the "Detroit Clerical Aptitude Test" and the judgment of teachers instructing the pupil.[21]

The clerical work experience program of Oakland, California, recognizes eligibility of only high-ranking seniors chosen by the Head of the Commercial Department. Handled in the same manner as a scholarship, the opportunity for work experience is "open to students who qualify in a competitive exam." These examinations are given twice a year and parallel Civil Service examinations since they cover clerical phases as typing, dictation, spelling, filing and arithmetic. From this rating, a list is compiled, derived at in the following manner:

Scholarship	5%
Work Experience	5%
Duplicating Machines	10%
Personality	20%
Skills	60%
	100%[22]

> Only those students who have completed their eleventh year (in the Norwood, Ohio, High School) and who are classified as commercial majors are eligible for the cooperative program. Applications are received from the eleventh-grade class at the close of the school year, and the parents must approve the application. During the

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[20] Pendy, loc. cit.

[21] "Work Experience in Agricultural, Commercial and Trade and Industrial Education," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 59.

[22] J. W. Edgemond "Cooperative Training Program for Clerical and Secretarial Positions in a School System," American School Board Journal, CIII, (November, 1941), p. 42.

summer (the coordinator) makes contacts with employers. When an opportunity is found to place a cooperative student, two or more eligible students are sent for interviews. The employer makes his own selection.[23]

In Allen High School, New Orleans, Louisiana,

any girl who is in Shorthand V, who through the two preliminary courses in office practice has full mastery of machine operation, has completed two courses in bookkeeping, and has training in the operation of the Comptometer, may elect Cooperative Office Work, provided she is selected by the faculty on the basis of grades, personality and fitness.[24]

In New York, the opportunity for work experience is provided "advanced business pupils without regard to their economic status."[25]

Pupils should be selected who have maintained satisfactory school grades (in the State of New York) in business and academic subjects, who are of proper age, in good health and who also have satisfactory personality ratings.[26]

PRINCIPLE: Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age, who want it, need it, and are qualified for the occupation.

The manner of placing students in various offices ranges all the way from total student responsibility to total coordinator responsibility. In Wilmington, Delaware, however, an effective medium has been reached, with the school assuming no direct responsibility for the cooperative student's placement, although many students take advantage of positions that come through the Placement Department of the school.

While the student is vested with the responsibility of obtaining his own position, the coordinator must guide, stimulate, and assist him in every possible way. The student can be expected to do much

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[23]Emil Hostetler "Vocational Commercial Education on a Cooperative Basis," The Balance Sheet, XXV, (February, 1943), pp. 256-7.

[24]Ruby V. Perry "Clerical Practice Made Practical," National Business Education Quarterly, VIII, (May, 1937), p. 38.

[25]Announcing Regents Credit and Federal Aid for Work Experience Courses in Business Education, op. cit., p. 3.

[26]Ibid.

> of the 'missionary work;' yet it often falls upon the coordinator to 'close' the majority of the placements.[27]

Mrs. Helen McCormick Johnston, quoted by Haines, has this to say about cooperative clerical education:

> Where placement is a problem, cooperative education is a fine thing, and I am for it on the condition that it will be unnecessary to sacrifice any of the advanced training program.[28]

Pamphlets, letters, talks before community groups, personal contacts, press releases, and telephone communications are but a few of the many methods commonly used in enlisting businessmen to cooperate in this program. "The coordinator should utilize every device for promoting cooperative placements."[29]

PRINCIPLE: The employer should be the final judge in the placement of students, with guidance from the coordinator.

Concurrent with guidance, selection and placement practices should be the follow-up study which permits the coordinator of a cooperative work experience program to validate the success of the program, enables him to improve upon selection of students in the future by profiting from mistakes in the past, and allows him to become better acquainted with employers, and thereby develops a better relationship between the program and the business community.

The coordinator in East Moline, Illinois, makes a follow-up case study of each student who was graduated from the Cooperative Stenographic Training Plan. By it, he seeks to determine primarily whether the student is working and the approximate length of time he has worked

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[27] William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (February, 1941), p. 511.

[28] As quoted in William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (May, 1941), p. 802.

[29] William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (February, 1941), p. 511.

since graduation. This study is usually made in November following graduation in June.[30]

B. Frank Kyker believes that it is a good plan for school and business to "cooperate in a follow-up study of business drop-outs and graduates to see what kinds of jobs they secure and the extent to which the business training is functioning successfully on the job."[31]

PRINCIPLE: For purposes of prognostication and future relationships with business, follow-up studies should be made periodically.

A cooperative work experience program should be considered an invaluable educational asset for all participating youth and not merely a temporary stop-gap to relieve a current social condition. The several writers of the Eighth Yearbook of the National Business Teachers Association believe that

> it is the function of schools to advocate and to seek to provide part-time occupational experiences that can be educationally justified.[32]

Work experience is justifiable only so long as it is training the student to become a more efficient worker, and when such opportunities are exhausted, it should be discontinued.

> Because of the savings involved and the opportunity to secure inexpensive help, the temptation to exploit business students is great. . . The temptation on the part of other teachers to exploit the students and staff of the business department may be an ever-present source of trouble. . . Often, too, persons in the community who wish to have clerical work done bring the work to the school and request that it be done either free or at a nominal charge which may not cover even the cost of the materials.[33]

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[30]Carl J. Newman "A Cooperative Training Plan for Stenographers," Business Education World, XIX, (June, 1939), p. 824.

[31]B. Frank Kyker "Cooperation Between Businessmen and Business Education" Review of Commercial Education, XXXVII, (July, 1940), p. 6.

[32]National Business Teachers Association, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 88.

[33]Ibid., p. 95.

> The student cooperative should receive enough compensation to provide him with carfare, lunch money, and presentable wearing apparel. The school, through the coordinator, should forestall exploitation by establishing a minimum daily rate of pay for employers not subject to wage and hour legislation.[34]

> For business and the school to link hands in cooperative business education calls for coordination of the highest order. The whole program must center around the coordinator, whose duty it is to translate the job experience into effective, dynamic classroom procedures.[35]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be of sufficient educational value to enable the acquisition of mastery of the skills and understandings needed for the job.

School Relationships

Various methods are employed in scheduling the time needed for work experience:

> In La Grande, Oregon,
>
> a regular class is arranged on the pupils' schedule during the sixth period of the school day. For one class period each week the class meets as a complete group for comparison of the work and for further study. The work of the employer is laid out in a time schedule that meets his needs. A minimum of four hours is arranged in types of work that beginners can handle.[36]

> A cooperative system must be more flexible for business than for engineering students.[37]

PRINCIPLE: For successful training, the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

> In the Collinsville, Illinois, program,
>
> After a few weeks (of work experience) individual students' problems began to arise. From then on, the classroom period was given over to individual conferences, group discussions, and individual study.

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[34] William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (April, 1941), p. 728.

[35] William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (February, 1941), p. 511.

[36] "Provision for Training in Office Practice on the Job," loc. cit.

[37] Theodore W. Glocker "Business Contacts for Business Students," The Balance Sheet, XXII, (December, 1940), p. 155.

If a student needed practice in filing, she studied filing in the classroom and then helped with the filing in the high school office. A student who had difficulty in telephoning was urged to study her problem and to practice in the school office. Students who needed to improve their typing and shorthand skill spent the office practice period in typing and taking dictation. In the same manner, attempts were made to solve other individual problems.[38]

The class instruction in school (North High School, Des Moines, Iowa) is related to and based upon the working experience of the students.[39]

In the classroom (of clerical cooperative students in the La Grande, Oregon, High School) the pupils study stenciling, mimeographing, changing all kinds of typewriter ribbons, proofreading, taking dictation for various persons, telephoning, meeting strangers easily, filing, and other activities suggested by employers.[40]

The stenographic position surely requires that one shall be more than passably competent in spelling, choice of words, sentence structure and the many details of written expression.[41]

In Wright High School, Detroit, Michigan,

instruction during the cooperative period is related to the kind of work in which the student is employed. Since all courses are planned in units, it is simple for each student to concentrate on units that relate to the job experience he is receiving in industry. When a student has completed one unit satisfactorily, he may proceed to the next, for progress is based on the ability and industry of the student.[42]

PRINCIPLE: Classroom instruction of clerical cooperative students should be individualized to meet the needs of the student as indicated by their working experiences.

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[38] Reyno F. Bixler, "A Tailor-Made Cooperative Plan," Business Education World, XXIII, (April, 1943), p. 477.

[39] Pendy, loc. cit.

[40] "Provisions for Training in Office Practice on the Job," loc. cit.

[41] National Business Teachers Association, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 122.

[42] As stated in William E. Haines, "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (April, 1941), p. 729.

If it contributes to educational growth, E. G. Johnston believes school credit should be given for cooperative work experience in clerical training.

> Acceptance of the view that credit is justified carries with it responsibility for careful planning and coordination of educational experiences, provision for intelligent guidance of the individual pupil, and assurance that educational aims will be paramount in the procedures employed.[43]

> In our school (Norwood, Ohio,) one credit is allowed for the work experience and three and one-half credits are allowed for the related instruction. This plan provides the opportunity for a full year of work-study experience just before graduation from the high school.[44]

"Pupils receive school credit for the work" in La Grande, Oregon.[45] In Tulsa, Oklahoma, Central High School issues one credit each semester for cooperative work experience.[46] Collinsville, Illinois, offers full credit for the cooperative course.[47]

PRINCIPLE: School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.

Cooperative students work without pay in the La Grande, Oregon, program, while those in Tulsa, Oklahoma, receive from $20 to $30 per month for the office work experience they perform, while working a minimum of 80 hours per month.[48]

The extensive cooperative program of Oakland, California, provides for clerical trainees to earn no compensation in the

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[43]E. G. Johnston, "School Credit for Business Experience," Business Education World, XIX, (September, 1938), p. 93.

[44]Hostetler, op. cit., p. 257.

[45]"Provision for Training in Office Practice on the Job," loc. cit.

[46]Edwin M. Bonde "Cooperative Training in Tulsa," National Business Education Quarterly, XI, (October, 1942), p. 17.

[47]Bixler, loc. cit.

[48]Bonde, op. cit., pp. 17-18.

beginning and ends with a minimum of 25 cents an hour. This program, enlisting more than 300 students annually, is confined to clerical jobs of non-profit-making business offices within the Oakland School District.[49]

In the New York Plan for office work experience under federal aid,

> business department pupils gaining practical experience by working in approved offices and stores should be paid the usual wage for beginning employees doing the same type of work in the community.
>
> Unpaid work should be done only for non-profit charitable, social or military agencies and such work should not result in the displacement of full-time workers regularly provided for in the agency's budget.[50]

In the Chester, Pennslyvania, High School,

> pupils do not expect compensation when they are on the cooperative project and they have suggested that all compensation received go into a fund managed by themselves. From this fund, pupils are reimbursed for necessarily contracted expenses that ordinarily they could not afford. Most of the employers are willing to furnish transportation, or lunch, or both. The remainder of the fund accumulates for the purchase of some needed piece of equipment for the class.[51]
>
> One dollar a day has been found to be satisfactory to both employers and students, but a large percentage of participating employers in Wilmington, Delaware, have of their own volition set the rate well above this figure. In some instances, cooperatives may be assigned to jobs without pay in certain school offices and in non-profit agencies such as the Red Cross, Boy Scouts, Y. M. C. A.[52]

The Santa Barbara, California, cooperative course prescribes that at least the apprenticeship pay required in California be paid.[53]

PRINCIPLE: Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.

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[49]Edgemond, op. cit., p. 42.

[50]Announcing Regents Credit and Federal Aid for Work Experience Courses in Business Education, op. cit., p. 3.

[51]Charles J. Jensen "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXIII, (January, 1943), p. 269.

[52]William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (April, 1941), p. 728.

[53]As cited in Ibid., (May, 1941), p. 803.

In the Des Moines, Iowa, program

> One point that should be explained to many employers is that students employed under this plan are listed on payrolls as 'learners' rather than as employees, and as such are exempt from the Unemployment Compensation Tax levy, and may, upon application, be exempt from the usual requirements under the Minimum Wage and Hour Act.[54]

Haines tells about federal legislation which might affect cooperative clerical students:

> The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 is said to place a 'floor under wages and a ceiling over hours.' The wage and hour provisions of the Act apply to 'employees engaged in interstate commerce.' In making placements with certain employers, the coordinator, and occasionally the employer, may have some doubt as to whether or not the Act is applicable. Cases of this type should be referred to the Wage and Hour Division for official interpretation. The coordinator should assume neither the function of interpretation nor enforcement beyond the point of the school's legal responsibilities.
>
> Most cooperative placements are likely to be made among employers engaged solely in intrastate commerce, in which case the federal law does not apply. The minimum of 30 cents has been cheerfully met by fully half of the Wilmington employers coming under the Act. Others, who feel that they cannot pay student cooperatives the minimum wage, are allowed an exemption under the terms of regulations R-927, . . .entitled 'Regulations Applicable to the Part-Time Employment of Student Learners in Vocational Training Programs.'
>
> Under certain prescribed conditions the Wage and Hour Division will issue Student-Learner Certificates, under the terms of which the employer may pay an amount 'not less than 75 per cent of the minimum wage rate applicable under section 6 of the said Act.' Thus, the employer may pay an average of 22½ cents per hour.[55]

Students under 16 are not eligible for Student-Learner Certificates according to the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division of the U. S. Department of Labor.[56] Cooperative students, however, do come under the Social Security Act. Each student should have a Social Security card

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[54] Pendy, op. cit., p. 28.

[55] William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (April, 1941), pp. 727-8.

[56] Ibid.

before reporting to his cooperative job. "The deductions and payments made by the employer for regular full-time employees must be made for the cooperative student also."[57]

> Cooperative students are employees within the meaning of the Workmen's Compensation Law, and they are listed on the pay roll by the employer. This insures protection to both the student and the employer. However, the student may not apply for unemployment compensation when his training period is discontinued. According to the Ohio Unemployment Compensation Law, 'The term employment shall not include. . .service performed as a short-time worker by a minor whose principal occupation is a student attending public or private school.'[58]

It is necessary for a cooperative pupil to have a work permit filled out in the Monmouth, Illinois, High School program.

> The blank required the pupil to give the reason for the application, the hours to be excused, the name of his employer, the signatures of his parents and employer, and his own signature. The objectives of this work permit were four fold. First, it served the medium of a quasi-contract. In exchange for permission to work on school time, the pupil was obligated to render a service to a local business man. Second, the routine involved in making application reduced to a minimum the number who would try to abuse such a privilege to get out of school. Third, as the consent of the parents has been obtained, there was less occasion for recourse on the part of the parent to place blame on the school if the pupil's grades dropped because of a heavy out-of-school load. Fourth, shound school administration demanded accurate pupil accounting.[59]

PRINCIPLE: All pertinent laws, regulations and acts should be followed by cooperative students.

Because no data are available, it is not known how frequently clerical work experience programs advocate rotation of jobs. Here is one example, however, of what might and has been done:

> A student is kept on one 'station' until the instructor and the (job) supervisor feel wither that he has succeeded in the job, or that he has received all the help he can receive from that experience, or that he has indicated a lack of ability. He is then moved to another

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[57] Ibid.

[58] Hostetler, loc. cit.

[59] "Out-of-School Work Experience," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXVII, (January, 1943), p. 96.

> 'station' for another type of experience, another type of supervision for a more intensive experience in the same type of work.[60]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.

In Wilmington, Delaware, cooperative students spend five two-week periods during the semester in offices. When he returns to school

> the employer submits a full report of his work for that time. These reports are immediately circulated among the teachers, who promptly set in motion a remedial program that aims to correct the weaknesses thus disclosed.[61]

In La Grande Oregon, High School, each cooperative student makes a "work report" daily, and the employer fills out an "employer work report" each week.[62] The Douglass High School in Baltimore, Maryland, (colored) requires several reports made of cooperative clerical students:

> A form was devised on which each student recorded daily the activities in which he is engaged. The number of letters written, the amount of material filed, the amount of mimeographing done, the number of envelopes stuffed, sealed or stamped, were recorded and summarized weekly. These records gave some indication of the student's real helpfulness to the employers. They also gave an insight into what activities are actually required by employers.[63]

> At the conclusion of the (cooperative) project (in Chester, Pennsylvania) each employer submits an objectively constructed report on a form provided for that purpose. This report forms a basis for advising students on their strong and weak points as seen by the employer. The purpose and method of handling this report are thoroughly explained to the employer.[64]

Some schools file the employer's report with the permanent record of the student, thereby enabling the student to use it as a form of recommendation.

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[60] Margaret E. Andrews "The Cooperative Work Project," Business Education World, XXII, (June, 1942), p. 903.

[61] William E. Haines "Bridge That Gap," Journal of Business Education, XV, (December, 1939), p. 14.

[62] "Provision for Training in Office Practice on the Job," loc. cit.

[63] Harry J. Hunt "Must Have Experience," Occupations, XIX, (May, 1941), p. 579.

[64] Jensen, op. cit., p. 270.

PRINCIPLE: Records and reports should be required for purposes of information, guidance, remedial instruction and job placement.

Cooperative work experience should be given toward the end of the school training--after sufficient skill is attained to perform the job efficiently and before the period of full-time employment--so that it can be used as a stepping stone in the adjustment of the youth into adulthood.

> Occupational training for business is most effective when given nearest the time of possible placement. . . .programs which require both cooperative school and business work experience help merge training into placement and thus prevent loss of occupational efficiency due to lapse of time between training and placement.[65]

In Wilmington, Delaware, the last semester is devoted to cooperative work experience.[66] Similar practice is followed in Chester, Pennslyvania.[67]

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be given as near the time of permanent job placement as possible.

Nichols believes that in cooperative clerical programs, as is the common practice in the other four major fields already discussed, as much time should be spent on the job as in the classroom:

> All that is necessary is that there shall be substantially as much time given to practice on a real job as there is to instruction in the classroom or laboratory. Alternate weeks, or Saturdays or afternoons or vacations or any combination of these will meet all requirements.
>
> It should be pointed out also that for vocational training without federal aid the principle of part-time training can be accepted and made the basis of a training program without too close adherence to the 50-50 arrangement required for courses under federal and state laws. Even half as much preemployment occupational experience will be much better than none, and at least this much can be assured to all qualified trainees in most localities where vocational business training should be undertaken. It is the principle that is important; not the exact method of applying it.[68]

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[65] National Business Teachers Association, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., pp. 177-8.

[66] Haines, "Bridge That Gap," loc. cit.

[67] Jensen, op. cit., p. 269.

[68] F. G. Nichols "Criticism, Comment and Challenge," Journal of Business Education, XVI, (March, 1941), p. 26.

The Federal Aid for Work Experience Courses in Business Education Plan inaugurated in the State of New York in the fall of 1943 requires students to spend at least 15 hours a week in working. "Many business department seniors are now satisfying that requirement. Many others could be placed in part-time positions--working after school hours, evenings and on Saturdays."[69]

> The school-time requirement is at least two periods each day in instruction related to and based upon the work experience in addition to the usual academic instruction.[70]

Hostetler states that

> the cooperative student may work a minimum of 15 hours, but not more than 40 hours a week, part of which time may be put in on Saturday. We do not include the hours students work during the weeks when school is closed for vacations, such as at Christmas, Easter, and during the summer. The maximum time for related instructions does not exceed in point of actual clock hours the time spent in regular employment. The student's day is about equally divided between school instruction and job experience. The normal plan involves a half day in school, followed by a half day on the job.[71]

PRINCIPLE: Time spent in employment should equal the total time spent in school.

Coordination

Glocker believes that cooperative work experience in business offices should be a privilege denied the less capable.[72] Those average and borderline students should be afforded the chance to learn detailed office procedure to discover whether they might succeed in a part-time supervised job. It is common practice to give these students work experience with other teachers and in the school offices. The study

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[69] Announcing Regents Credit and Federal Aid for Work Experience Courses in Business Education, op. cit., p. 2.

[70] Ibid.

[71] Hostetler, loc. cit.

[72] Glocker, op. cit., p. 156.

made by the South-Western Publishing Company in 1930 of practical cooperative training in secondary schools throughout the country reveals that, because of difficulties in scheduling, clerical trainees were usually "farmed out" to teachers and administrators in the school, rather than to businessmen.[73]

Because invaluable contacts are lost in this method, many schools compromise by providing in-school experience while the student is still learning the skills and actual business office experience when he has become employable.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

> It is a fundamental principle of any field of vocational education that educators who are responsible for it in any local, state or national situation shall have the benefit of a council of advisory committees constituted in such a way as to insure that all major aspects of employment will be represented.[74]

> To organize a program of occupational business education that will meet requirements of employers necessitates the closest possible cooperation of employers to the end that their needs may be thoroughly understood, and that they are taken into account in the planning of courses and other activities incident to the preparation of workers for their business positions.[75]

> Advice and counsel is earnestly solicited from the employers of Norwood, (Ohio.) Local businessmen are invited to serve on an advisory committee which meets on call. Many valuable suggestions for improving the training program have come from these meetings.[76]

An advisory group of prominent business leaders guides the cooperative activities in the Dayton, Ohio, Cooperative High School.[77]

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[73]South-Western Publishing Company Practical Cooperative Training in Commercial Education, Monograph 30, (Cincinnati: South-Western, 1936).

[74]National Business Teachers Association, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 60.

[75]Ibid., p. 72.

[76]Hostetler, loc. cit.

[77]As cited in William E. Haines "Cooperative Secretarial Training," Business Education World, XXI, (February, 1941), p. 512.

PRINCIPLE: Effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

> In the other major fields of vocational training, work experience for teachers and trainees alike is required. In business education, none is required, except in the distributive field under the recent George-Deen Act.[78]

The several authors of the Eighth Yearbook of the National Business Teachers Association believe that teachers of clerical occupations should be able to "hold down a job on the level at which they are preparing students."[79] The trend toward occupationally trained teachers has not been in greater years of service, but rather in the type of work experience which facilitates more successful guidance, direction and supervision of the students they train.

PRINCIPLE: Teachers of cooperative programs should have occupational experience and skills at least on a parity with the students they train.

> If American youth are to be given work experience, the unions will have to be partners. In recent letters from leaders of labor, it is assumed that they stand ready to do all in their power for the promotion of work experience programs and for the preparation of intelligent labor union membership.[80]

Many parts of the country are not yet unionized in office and clerical fields, but where union membership is part of the working conditions, it should be considered. Where such is the case, every precaution should be taken to maintain amicable relationships with these organizations.

PRINCIPLE: Cooperative programs should provide for cooperation and understanding with labor unions.

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[78] F. G. Nichols "Business Education--Clerical and Distributive," in the Forty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, Vocational Education, (Chicago: University of Chaicago, 1943), p. 222.

[79] National Business Teachers Association, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., p. 95.

[80] Robert G. Andree "Six Errors About Work Experience," The Clearing House, XVI, (May, 1942), p. 519.

SUMMARY

The plan of cooperative work experience in clerical education seems to be in that "now and then" state of affairs. Many schools which have employed this program have realized large dividends on their investment in turning out more employable youth.

Throughout the country, the various programs are extremely non-unified in many of their finer points; however, they are all striving toward the common goal of better training for secondary school youth in business employment. Perhaps this diversification is just as well because the greatest single factor of importance is serving the needs of the local community, and community requirements differ.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The adjustment of youth into adulthood has always been an important issue of society. Vocational adjustment is an important phase of the total adjustment. Until the century, the majority of youth was apprenticed out or worked side by side with their parents. The evolution of industrial and scientific forces has created a need which has been met in part by the public secondary school in assuming the function of training American youth for vocational as well as social living.

The numerous federal acts in aid of vocational education have encouraged and specified that work experience be a requisite to financial assistance. This policy is in harmony with the philosophy that vocational training must be functional. Today the only major field of vocational education which is not directly aided by the government in its policy of encouraging its vocational objective through cooperative work experience is that of clerical education. Although many years have witnessed the development of isolated community programs, cooperative work experience in clerical is being subsidized by the federal government indirectly through the trade and industrial program.

From study of literature in the field of work-study plans and vocational education, from policies laid down by the federal government concerning vocational education, from opinions and comments of writers and leaders in the various fields of vocational education, and from

typical cooperative practices have been evolved some of the more important principles relative to cooperative work experience. These principles in each of the fields of agricultural, home economics, trade and industrial, distributive and clerical education have been discussed and compared. Certain of these principles in the five fields are derived from, or are similar to, or are identical with each other.

The subsequent eleven principles, listed by early leaders in the vocational education movement, have been generally accepted and taken for granted and practiced so widely that they are seldom even mentioned in the literature. Certain of these principles which have been repeated in those fields where the connotation varies or where they need particular emphasis will be discussed further. No importance is attached to the order of listing.

1. Training should be taught in the same way it is used in the occupation itself.

2. The sequence of subject matter should be arranged and presented as it is used on the job.

3. Content of the training should be functional to that occupation alone.

4. Training should continue until the trainee can secure and hold permanent employment.

5. Training should meet the current demand for labor in that field.

6. Training should be sufficiently flexible to allow help when required qnd in the way it is required.

7. Sufficient flexibility should be permitted to allow each trainee to attain his top capacity.

8. Individual instruction should be given whenever necessary.

9. Sufficient funds should be expended so that a good training job is done.

10. The coordinator should be a regular member of the school faculty.

11. All pupils participating in cooperative work experience should be considered regularly enrolled pupils of the school, rather than workers attending school.

The following four principles of cooperative education are discussed in the literature of all five fields engaged in cooperative programs. They may, therefore, be added to the eleven above, thus making fifteen principles which are applicable to all fields.

12. Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.

13. Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited only to those students who are at least 14 years of age, who want it, need it and are qualified for the occupation.

14. For successful training the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.

15. Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.

The literature reveals that the following twelve principles are applicable to clerical education, but not to all other fields. However, these principles are equally applicable, but are not generally practiced by all fields.

16. Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.

Clerical cooperative students, as do the trade and industrial and distributive education students, abide by this principle. In an effort to prevent youth exploitation, federal and state standard wage scales have been set up; in some localities special scales for part-time student workers should be followed. On the other hand, due to the personal (work for self or parents) nature of the farm and home projects of agricultural and home economics education, cooperative students should be compensated by increased ability and understanding, although money is often desirable.

17. School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.

Clerical cooperative practices emulate trade and industrial and distributive education in this respect. This is not, however, the practice in the agricultural and home economics fields where credit for work experience is included as a part of the school course.

18. Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.

Clerical, as home economics and distributive education follows this principle because after a reasonable amount of time is spent in the learning and practicing of a particular job, it ceases to warrent educational credit. The practice of keeping cooperative students in routine, dead-end jobs should be avoided.

19. All pertinent laws, regulations and acts should be followed by cooperative students.

The literature in clerical cooperative education, as in distributive education practices, emphasizes the urgent need for compliance with all local, state and federal legislation whenever possible. Home economics and agricultural cooperative training does not generally enforce as strict a policy because the character of the home and farm practice is more individual, i.e., it does not affect as many outside people. Trade and industrial cooperative students should, but according to the Advisory Committee on Education, do not adhere strictly to these regulations; therefore, this policy is not a principle of this field.

20. Classroom instruction of cooperative students should be individualized to meet the needs of the student as indicated by his working experience.

Although all fields of vocational education practice individual instruction, a definite correlation of classroom instruction with the

training on the job is given lip service, but too seldom practiced in clerical programs. On the other hand, distributive education, actually does adapt its instruction to the individual in an attempt to coordinate the job with the school.

21. The employer should be the final judge in the placement of cooperative students.

Clerical programs, like distributive programs, often help the student to find a suitable job, but in the last analysis the employer who is paying the wage has his choice of employees because of personal relationships.

22. Time spent in employment should equal the total time spent in school.

Through the policy of the U. S. Office of Education, trade and industrial and distributive education practice this principle. There is evidence that clerical plans also believe in it, but practice is not prevalant.

23. Cooperative work experience should be given as near the time of permanent job placement asppossible.

So that specialized skills and knowledges will not be forgotten through disuse, clerical programs follow this principle. Distributive education likewise trains immediately prior to full-time employment, using the part-time experience as an orienting period. Agricultural, home economics, and trade and industrial practices do not necessarily follow this principle.

24. Effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.

Clerical programs, like the fields of agriculture, trade and industries and distributive education, use advisory committees as a guide to more

effective relationships with the community and for a source of school instruction based on the actual needs of the community.

25. Cooperative work experience should perform the functions of guidance, placement and follow-up for its trainees.

With the exception of agriculture, this principle is generally practiced in vocational training. Clerical, however, like distributive education, believes positively that the employer should be the final judge in the placement of cooperative students, because he is the person paying the wage. In clerical education also, like distributive education, for purposes of prognostication and future relationships with business, follow-up studies should be made periodically--follow-up of the student not only during the period of work experience, but also after graduation to determine the success of the training.

26. Cooperative work experience should be of sufficient educational value to enable the acquisition of mastery of the abilities and understandings needed for the job.

Because there are so many routine jobs in clerical work, as in home economics, literature and practices alike make it mandatory that when given under school control and for school credit, such work must have enough educational value to warrant its inclusion in the curricula. Because there are so many important techniques and procedures which cannot be learned as well in the classroom as on the actual job, the simulated office situation of the classroom lacks the important incentives and acclimatization factors essential to efficient training.

27. Cooperative programs should provide for cooperation and understanding with labor unions.

Clerical follows the practice of the trade and industrial field in this respect. Since organized labor has become such a powerful force in

American economy, its cooperation, rather than distrust, should be sought. The purpose of the educational system is to train rather than merely to get labor out of the student. In fulfilling the purpose of democracy that each student should be given an equal opportunity, cooperative plans should make sure that work experiences are mutually beneficial to both the employer and the student. Organized labor can help in keeping working standards high and malpractices low.

The following seven principles of cooperative work experience which are not applicable to clerical education, according to the literature, are as follows:

1. Cooperative work experience should be organized in the form of projects.

Followed in the home economics and agricultural fields, this principle is not used in clerical practice because here the work is not an integral part of the classroom instruction, but is supplementary to it.

2. Cooperative work experience should be supervised at least six months of the year with at least one project completed per year.

This principle is laid down by the Smith-Hughes Act for agricultural cooperative farm projects. Clerical work experience, on the other hand, is supervised continually.

3. Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer and to the state office should be required.

All fields of vocational education keep records for purposes of guidance and reference for all students. Cooperative students are required to make periodic reports of their work experiences. All programs referred to in this study demand that the employer also make periodic reports of the cooperative students. However, clerical programs do not require reports to the school administrators and to state offices, when they are not federally-aided.

4. Cooperative class schedules should be comprehensive in that they cover two or more years of secondary school.

Although all training in vocational education should be comprehensive, agricultural practices alone typically have two or more years for such training. Clerical plans, on the other hand, seldom devote an entire year, more often half a year, to cooperative enterprises.

5. The number of students who might be cooperatively trained should be without limit.

The field of home economics alone follows this principle because it is assumed that everyone has a home and would profit from more intelligent management of it. Clerical training, as in the other fields, has a limited labor market; hence, where there are no jobs there should be no training.

6. Homogeneous groupings should prevail in cooperative work programs.

Except for the Diversified Occupations program which intentionally admits all interested applicants, trade and industrial education insists that all students in a single class be employed in a like occupation. Distributive education also requires all of its trainees to be employed in similar phases of retailing, except in smaller communities which cannot support such programs. Clerical education, to the contrary, allows a wide divergence of occupations, so long as they are carried on in an office. This is the common practice because there are so many different office jobs and usually not enough cooperative students to form separate classes for each type.

There are certain principles, six in number, in the other fields of vocational education which clerical education would benefit by adopting:

8. Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.

All areas of vocational education, except clerical, applies this principle to its cooperative practice, not only because it is the logical plan to use, but also because the policy is laid down by the U. S. Office of Education governing all federally-aided programs. Largely because of this lack of federal regulation, clerical classroom instruction often has little relationship to the working experiences of the students. Such a principle might result in more successful practices in this field, however, even if self-imposed.

9. Selection of cooperative students should be based upon objective as well as subjective means of evaluation.

Distributive education cooperative programs practice many commendable methods of selecting students which have effected immediate success on the job and has tended to up-grade retail workers over a period of years. Clerical education, on the other hand, uses some of these methods, but typically does not practice selection scientifically, as it admits anyone who has attained the necessary skill. However, the situations are really not comparable because clerical workers must have attained a degree of mastery of the skills prior to work experience, while distributive students begin the training and the work experience concurrently.

10. An agreement or understanding between the employer, the school, the student and his parents should be required in cooperative programs.

Clerical education might benefit from the adoption of this principle used by distributive education because it would standardize the factors to be considered in working conditions for all students, and it would also act as a check for all parties as to what their exact duties and responsibilities are in the cooperative relationship.

11. Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training, should be required of all cooperative teacher-coordinators.

Clerical education might increase its productivity if it adhered to this principle which is practiced by all other fields of cooperative education, especially those which are federally-aided. Clerical teachers often possess skills on a parity with their students, however, since specified periods of service in the kind of work cooperative students perform is not required of them, many clerical teachers have not had this experience.

12. Cooperative work experience programs should use various methods of recruiting and promoting according to the local situation.

Largely due to the lack of adequate supervision and established practices, clerical cooperative programs do not pay sufficient attention to the importance of careful recruiting of students and promoting the program in the community. Distributive education has developed some splendid practices which might successfully be adapted to clerical education.

13. The best current practices and highest occupational standards should be the bases for instruction and training.

This principle, basic to all vocational training, has been emphasized in the field of trade and industrial education because it is considered in the literature to be one of the policies least adhered to in actual cooperative practice. Clerical, too, would increase its efficiency if it adopted higher standards for its cooperative work experience.

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APPENDIX

CHECK LIST FOR PRINCIPLES OF COOPERATIVE WORK EXPERIENCE

STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS	AG.	H.E.	T.I.	D.E.	CLER.
1. Cooperative work experience should be organized in the form of projects.	x	x			
2. Cooperative work experience programs should be adapted to meet the needs of the community as determined by surveys and studies of current conditions.	x	x	x	x	x
3. Cooperative work experience should be supervised at least six months of the year with at least one project completed per year.	x				
4. Admission to cooperative work experience programs should be limited to those students who are at least 14 years of age who want it, need it, and are qualified for the occupation.	x	x	x	x	x
5. Cooperative work experience should perform the functions of guidance, placement and follow-up for its trainees.		x	x		
6. Cooperative work experience should be of sufficient educational value as to enable the acquisition of mastery of the skills and understandings needed for the job.		x			x
7. Cooperative work experience programs should use various methods of recruiting and promoting according to the local situation.				x	
8. Sufficient skill and understanding should be obtained to enable the student to perform efficiently on the job.	x	x	x		
9. The selection of cooperative students should be based upon objective as well as subjective means of evaluation.				x	
10. The employer should be the final judge in the placement of cooperative students.				x	x
11. For purposes of prognostication and future relationships with business, follow-up studies should be made periodically.				x	x
12. The selection of participating store or other agencies should be given careful consideration and deliberation to enable proper training for the cooperative students.				x	

SCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS	AG.	H.E.	T.I.	D.E.	CLER.
1. For successful training the administration of cooperative work experience programs should be flexible and fluid.	x	x	x	x	x
2. Related instructional content should have a direct relationship to the work experience.	x	x	x	x	
3. Cooperative students should be compensated by increased ability and understanding, although money is often desirable.	x	x			
4. Credit for cooperative work experience should be included as part of the vocational course.	x	x			
5. Records and reports of and by the student, from the employer, and to the state office should be required.	x	x	x	x	
6. Cooperative class schedules should be comprehensive in that they cover two or more years of secondary school.	x				
7. Cooperative classes should be scheduled for double periods throughout the curricula.	x				
8. Cooperative work experience should be varied sufficiently to enable experience in many of the phases of the occupation.		x		x	x
9. The number of students who might be cooperatively trained should be without limit.		x			
10. Cooperative work experience should be offered on the grade level best suited to the needs of the student.		x			
11. Homogeneous groupings should prevail in cooperative work programs.			x	x	
12. Remuneration for cooperative students should be comparable to that of other beginners in the occupation.			x	x	x
13. School credit should be given for the work experience of cooperative students.			x	x	x
14. All pertinent laws, regulations and acts should be followed by cooperative students.				x	x

	AG.	H.E.	T.I.	D.E.	CLER.
15. The best current practices and highest occupational standards should be the basis for instruction and training.			x		
16. Agreement or understanding between the employer, the school, the student and his parents should be required in cooperative programs.				x	
17. The number of students who may enroll in cooperative classes should be determined by their ability to secure part-time employment.				x	
18. Time spent in employment should equal the total time spent in school.			x	x	x
19. The working schedule of cooperative programs should be adjusted to meet the needs of the employer.				x	
20. Classroom instruction of cooperative students should be individualized to meet the needs of the student as indicated by their working experiences.				x	x
21. Records and reports should be required for purposes of information, guidance, remedial instruction and job placement.					x
22. Cooperative work experience should be given as near the time of permanent job placement as possible.				x	x
COORDINATION					
1. Cooperative work experience should be carried out in the natural working environment.	x	x	x	x	x
2. Effective cooperative work experience programs should require the advice and cooperation of competent advisory committees.	x		x	x	x
3. Occupational experience on a commercial basis, as well as technical and professional training, should be required of all cooperative teacher-coordinators.	x	x	x	x	
4. Cooperative programs should provide for cooperation and understanding with labor unions.			x		x
5. All practices in relation to work experience should be closely scrutinized for any indication of the exploitation of youth.			x		
6. Teachers of cooperative programs should have occupational experience and skills at least on a parity with the students they teach.					x